READINGS AND SELECTED REFERENCES IN ADMINISTRATION FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

BY

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INTRODUCTION

The schools of our nation are being continually observed, tested and commented upon in terms of fulfilling the duties that society demands. This concern for the education of our future citizens must be considered healthy and desirable. Responsibility falls to each school administrator to see that his system or part of a system is accomplishing its share of the task in educating the young. In organization and administration he should continually be aware of, and adjusting toward, sound educational theory and practice.

Leaders in the field have attempted to adjust the school program to a rapidly-changing social order; the scope of the program has increased and the school has assumed a different role in the training of youth than it formerly did. To administer current education in light of modern conceptions of teaching and learning is not an easy task. The organization of the school must be responsive to changes in educational theory if modern psychology and present concepts of teaching and learning are to find expression in the nation's schools. The principal, who is the man of concern in this work, is continually confronted with a variety of problems which he should solve through well-founded administrative

procedures. In the attempts to offer the best solutions possible to these many problems which arise, the principal will wish to examine critically current administrative practices, to review fundamental principles of organization in the light of current educational thought, and to familiarize himself with progressive practice.

It is to assist those beginning principals in the analysis of basic administrative problems that these materials have been compiled. Information was drawn from a wide variety of books and periodicals. To accomplish the purpose of providing assistance in gaining desirable solutions to administrative problems, the problem areas were defined and listed. Authoritative key quotations in each of these areas provide background for thinking and planning in each area. Following the quotations in each section, a selected and comprehensive bibliography is listed. These readings provide a survey of contemporary thought in the problem areas as they affect administrative organization. Materials presented are as contemporary as possible.

References were collected on the basis of a survey of materials of college, public and professional libraries. Other selections were located and included on recommendations of educators and administrators.

The collection is intended to be as inclusive as possible and yet selective enough to be directly applicable to

the study needs of the beginning principal. It may serve as well for anyone wishing to contact guiding remarks and extensive bibliography in administrative problem areas of the school principal.

CHAPTER I

THE ADMINISTRATOR'S OFFICE

The principal's office may well function as the nerve center of the school organization for which it is responsible. The efficiency, dependability and friendliness of this office will undoubtedly build up a spirit that will permeate the total school structure. Plans, practices and procedures that will allow better service to the school's program are desirable and should be instituted. In the following selections, some desirable practices for a successful principal's office are suggested.

The Principal in His Office[1]

For practical purposes, the principal retains for himself only those duties for which he feels obligated to assume direct responsibility. These include, among others, supervision for the purpose of starting new teachers toward professional growth and of keeping older teachers professionally growing; launching and steering of new administrative or educational policies; orientation of teachers in faculty meetings and of pupils in school assemblies; interviews with pupils, parents, and teachers; conferences with his immediate staff; meetings with fellow-principals, with

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[1]N. W. Newsom and R. E. Langfitt (eds.), Administrative Practices in Large High Schools (New York: American Book Company, 1940), pp. 127-128.

superintendents, and with supervisors of special subjects; correspondence, committee work, and community relationships.

Every principal should impose upon himself a definite schedule of activities and obligations. He must, of course, be familiar with accepted theory and practice relating to the budgeting of his time. However, he cannot always meet the educational needs of his particular school and community by following implicitly a schedule that is theoretically sound, or by adopting in unmodified form the practices of his associates. His position requires imagination and adaptability. His own temperament and professional habits will determine to some extent the emphasis which he places on the various items in the list of his duties. The principal's activities will also be modified by the composition of his faculty. Teachers who are resourceful and progressive will require less personal attention than those who have not developed the vision and assurance necessary for carrying out adequately the general policies of the school. Moreover, the character of the community that the school serves will influence the principal's program. Cultured and well-informed citizens need less interpretation of the basic principles of present-day secondary education than do those who come from a community in which economic and cultural opportunities are limited.

Other factors in the total situation will necessitate departure from usual standards of time allotment. The secondary-school principal today must devote a great portion of his time to keeping abreast of modern educational thought. He must frequently attend, and sometimes participate in, educational conferences and conventions, national, state, regional, and local. The school is sure to profit from the widened vision, increased assurance, and quickened enthusiasm of the educator who returns from such meetings. Each principal must, therefore, think his own problem through, so that he may be in a position to justify the agenda which he sets up for himself.

Check List of Responsibilities Through the Administrative Office[1]

All persons concerned with the school--the school head and other administrative personnel, other members of the school staff, and the students--should know what their duties and responsibilities are. In addition, all persons having any authority should know the scope of their authority and exactly how they fit into the organization of the school. As much of this information as is possible should be put into writing by higher administration echelons and by the specific

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[1]James H. Fox, Charles E. Bish, and Ralph W. Ruffner, School Administration Principles and Procedures (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), pp. 15-16.

school concerned.

1. Does the school head have a clear understanding of his functions as delegated to him by his immediate superior officers?

2. Are the duties of staff assistants to the school head clearly defined, and their working relationships specified as definitely as possible?

3. Are the administrative duties of teachers serving part-time as administrative assistants clearly stated?

4. Do teachers know, within the limits imposed by the instructional task, what is expected of them in connection with classroom teaching and with all other duties required?

5. Are the duties of all members of the clerical staff clearly defined?

6. Are the duties of all school personnel, other than instructional and clerical personnel, clearly defined?

7. Do the students have a clear understanding of their duties and responsibilities in connection with their attendance at the school?

Scheduling for an Efficient Office[1]

The duties of every principal naturally classify themselves under:--(1) regular duties, that is duties which must be looked after every day; and (2) those occasional duties which come up irregularly or only at stated intervals. These may be arranged, somewhat as follows:

I. Regular Duties.

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[1]Ellwood P. Cubberly, The Principal and His School Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923), pp. 188-190.

A. Early arrival at school building. (8:00)

B. Morning inspection of building and grounds. This should be done early, before teachers and pupils arrive. (8:05-8:15)

C. Hasty glance over office, desk, program for day's work, and any list of things to be done or attended to.. Fill in time with any minor detail work at hand. (8:15-8:35)

D. Teachers and pupils arriving, and possibly parents. Time best spent in the hallways or near front or office door, where cases can be attended to standing, and time saved. This is no time for the principal to go into his office with callers and sit down. Assembling of school. (8:35-9:00)

E. Morning assembly of pupils, if there be an assembly hall that will accommodate the school. (9:00-9:10)

F. Short period at office, seeing pupils sent there by teachers, receiving reports as to attendance, starting attendance officer on his work, doing necessary telephoning to central office, and glancing hastily over office mail for anything of special importance. (9:15-9:30)

G. School supervision, giving the best hours of the day to the work. (9:30-11:45)

H. Minor office work,--tardy reports, fill out and file supervision records. (11:45-12:00)

Noon Hour.

I. Same as "D" in morning, moving about building and grounds, overseeing conditions, and settling minor matters with quick decisions. (12:40-1:00)

J. Short office period for pupil cases, "good-work" interviews, afternoon attendance records, attention to mail, and filling out reports and records demanded by system. (1:00-2:00)

K. School supervision; on stated days principals' meetings. (2:00-3:00)

Note: "J" and "K" to alternate as necessary, so as to cover supervision of work from 1:00-2:00.

L. Office Hour, Mondays, Wednesday, and Fridays. Announce office hours "from 3:00," so as to get business in promptly, and fill in all vacant time to 4:00 with routine work, such as records, reports, requisitions, letters, memoranda filings, etc. (3:00-4:00)
Teachers' Meetings on alternate Tuesdays; Parent-Teacher Meetings on alternate Thursdays.

M. Clean up office work, arrange bulletin board, plan coming day's work, and leave by 4:15 to 4:30.

II. Occasional Duties.

A. Special conferences and disciplinary cases.

B. Checking up the supply room, and ordering supplies.

C. Special monthly and term reports.

D. Meetings of parent-teacher, pupil organizations, and neighborhood clubs.

E. Special problems in school organization and the supervision of instruction.

From such a list it will be seen that a working schedule can be prepared, once a school is under way, which will leave the principal, working without an office clerk, from three to three and a half hours, on most days of the week, for the work of school supervision and such other important duties in connection with the progress of pupils through the school as may need attention. A principal who has a good office clerk ought to find still more. By organization and system the principal who really wants to do so may shake himself partially free from the much magnified clerical and office demands, and be able to devote his powers, on most school days, to the educational problems connected with the instruction in

his school. There will come times, naturally, when a principal may have to spend a half-day or even a whole day consecutively at his desk, because some important problem may need to be worked out before other matters dependent on it can proceed. Most big problems, though, should be thought out and planned away from the interruptions of the office.

Business Efficiency in the Office Management[1]

An important contribution to effective school management can doubtless be made by applying lessons from the business world. A class in school administration taught by one of the authors collected helpful suggestions in seeking an answer to the question, What recommendations of business efficiency experts may be applied to problems in school management? These students were directed to examine the textbooks, special reports, and magazine articles in the field of business efficiency. The reports returned by the students included 150 different suggestions. This long list would indicate that school executives can learn much from the recommendations of the expert in the business world. The most important of the suggestions are given below.

1. Be human. If the company merely wanted to disseminate information, it would use a catalogue, not you.

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[1]J. B. Edmonson, J. Roemer, and F. L. Bacon, The Administration of the Modern Secondary School (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948), pp. 165-166.

2. Be dependable. If you tell someone you are going to do a thing, do it.

3. Eliminate fear. If someone makes mistakes, don't criticize him for it, for the best of us make mistakes. However, he should have an unpleasant time of it if makes the same mistake twice.

4. While it is true that most people will lost interest when they are scolded or found fault with, it is equally true that they will go at their work with renewed vigor if they are commended for something they have done well.

5. Rewards should be in exact proportion to effort and accomplishment, both as to quantity and quality of the work.

6. One of the secrets of the efficiency of tact lies in the fact that it is the expression of sympathy.

7. Develop an esprit de corps--the "American conception of teamwork, plus pride of organization."

8. Be sure that your appearance is neat and business-like. Your compensation will be proportionate.

9. Too much detail with too many rules and regulations should be avoided. They serve only to impede the smooth operation of any plan.

10. Irregularity is the most potent cause of waste.

11. Be a firm believer in the effectiveness of the "square deal" and of a sympathetic interest in the individual as forces that hold the staff together.

12. An executive should always be open to suggestion and advice.

13. Use a card index for the memory--a desk-drawer box having cards for every day of the month upon which to write things to be attended to in the future.

14. The efficiency of discipline depends upon developing in a body of people such confidence on the part of each individual that every other person will play his part.

The foregoing list may be used to advantage in making comparisons between the administrative policies of the school and the recommendations of the efficiency experts. The list may also be used by the principal in evaluating his own practices and procedures in office management.

Work Room for the Principal[1]

The school office is really the home-room of the principal. It is his point of anchorage in the school and, as such, the office should serve as the workroom for the principal. Most office arrangements provide an inner private room for the principal. This room is equipped with desk and chair, telephone, bookcases, files, and such other equipment as is necessary to give efficiency to the special work of the principal. Usually the principal's private workroom is equipped with a few chairs for small conferences. Such conference arrangements should be in addition to the general conference room.

The principal's private workroom is so closely associated with the activities of the office as a whole that it is difficult to segregate the two. The atmosphere of a well-administered office is cordial and makes teachers, pupils, and patrons feel not only that they are welcome but that an

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[1]Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1944), pp. 496-497.

open invitation is always extended for them to bring their problems for discussion with the principal. On the other hand, the office should manifest a businesslike atmosphere so that teachers, pupils, and patrons realize that the office is a place of business, a place where people have work to do and have no time for idle gossip or petty details. Unless this sentiment prevails, much valuable time is wasted by the principal and the staff, and the routine duties of the office are constantly interrupted.

To assist teachers and others with their problems and to make them feel welcome in the office, and yet to have these conferences dispatched without disrupting office efficiency, principals have found it very helpful to designate certain office hours during which the principal plans to interview patrons and pupils or to hold conferences with teachers. Clerical assistants may be notified of the hours which the principals sets aside for these specific purposes and thus be enabled to arrange appointments for those periods. Although emergency situations should always be met at the opportune time, the schedule suggested above will do much to economize the time and energy of the principal and the office help. Usually principals experience difficulties when they first attempt to systematize conference periods, but persistent efforts will be well repaid in the long run. Teachers will learn that their time is saved if they plan to see the

principal during the hour that he has scheduled for conferences. Teachers should not be permitted to send pupils to the office indiscriminately at any or all times or to send them without written instructions which give details regarding the nature and the extent of misbehavior and the particular reason why discipline should be administered from the office rather than by herself. Requests for materials and other details which must be handled through the office can be planned by teachers so that the work of the office may experience a minimum of interruption. Likewise messages and materials which are sent from the office to the classrooms should be planned so as to cause the least amount of interruption of classroom activity. If teachers are requested to visit the office periodically once or twice a day, the mail boxes conveniently placed in the outer office may be used for the distribution of bulletins and materials. Also, teachers, pupils, and patrons may be encouraged to present their requests and inquiries to the clerk who has charge of particular duties and thus economize the time of the principal as well as their own.

The reader should not gain the impression from the above statements that the rest of the school exists for the sake of efficient office administration. Basic to all considerations and principles for office administration is the fact that the office exists primarily for the services it

can render to the educational activities of the school. There are certain services, however, which can be rendered more economically and more effectively if they are centralized in one place. Some of these have been assembled in, and administered through, the principal's office. In order that maximum service and economy may result, it is essential that all concerned recognize the relationship of these services to the school program and respect the working conditions of the principal and his office staff. Tremendous inefficiency and waste can result, even in the little things, if sound principles of administration are not recognized.

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CHAPTER II

OFFICE RECORDS AND REPORTS

Information necessary for the accomplishment of the school's task is systematized in the office records and reports. This system should be ever simplified, coordinated, and unified. Unless records are adequate and accessible, their collection is wasted practice. An acceptable system aids in administrative control, furnishes data for analysis of the program, and provides routine in school affairs. The following commentaries point some factors for consideration.

Purposes of Records and Accounting[1]

With the development of the office of city superintendent and that of high-school principal into professional and technical positions, the practices of school administration and supervision have spread rapidly to include certain types of activities which for some time have been taken for granted in other types of administration of business or public affairs. Among these may be mentioned the activities relating to personnel records and business accounting. From the keeping of very simple and rudimentary records of attendance and credits, these activities as employed by progressive school officials have developed into very elaborate and use-

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[1]Harl R. Douglass, Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools, (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1932), pp. 388-389.

ful types of service.

Systems of personnel records and business accounting serve many types of valuable purposes, prominent among which may be mentioned the following:

Personnel records:

1. Aiding in studying the individual pupil
   a. As a means to the adaptation of instructional means and materials.
   b. In matters of moral, educational, and vocational guidance.

2. Reporting to pupils and parents
   a. Progress and status in school.
   b. School attendance, behavior, and effort.

3. Discovering and assisting in remedying
   a. Physical defects.
   b. Mental ill health.
   c. Incipient disease.

4. Aiding in determing the classification and promotion of pupils.

5. Furnishing data for determining the awarding of rewards for scholarship and attendance and of recommending graduates for college entrance.

6. Promoting attendance and punctuality.

7. Providing data for educational research.

8. Aiding in the management of an administration of pupil traffic within the building.

Business accounting:

1. Preventing theft and waste of materials and equipment.

2. Rendering an account of the stewardship of supplies, equipment, and funds.

3. Furnishing a basis for budget estimates.

The Principal and His Records[1]

The principal of a school should give careful consideration to the record forms which he will use in administering his school. The number of forms that will be utilized in a school will depend upon several factors--the administrative set-up, the information about pupils which is judged to be essential, the size of the school, the number of grades encompassed, the guidance program, and the amount of clerical assistance available. The reorganized secondary school will need a larger number of forms than one that is organized on the traditional pattern. In an investigation of record and report forms in six-year high schools, it was discovered that a well-organized small six-year high school had thirty different forms and that a large six-year high school had seventy-six different forms. A wider investigation would undoubtedly disclose a much greater range in the number of record forms, as small high schools are usually quite deficient in this respect. Record forms used merely for the sake of recording information should never be introduced into a school. Only those that have functional value should be utilized. In discussing school accounting, Boardman[2] states that its only

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[1]C. R. Maxwell, and L. R. Kilzer, High School Administration (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran, and Company, Inc., 1936), pp. 295-296.

[2]W. B. Boardman, "Public Accounting," High School Quarterly, XIX (October, 1930), 35-36.

justification is utility, and that those who are responsible for the building of record systems should consider this as a criterion for determining what records to make and keep.

Three types of record and report forms are necessary in the administration of a school. The first group includes the daily report forms, such as absence and tardy reports, which are filled out by teachers, forms used to admit pupils to classes after absence or tardiness, slips that are used for excusing pupils from attendance in study-hall or clubs, study-hall observation reports, early-dismissal slips, etc. Report forms of the second type include those that are filled out at infrequent intervals but which are necessary in the general administration of the school; for example, program cards, directory cards, withdrawal cards, cards for reporting scholastic achievement, textbook records, change-of-class enrollment card, etc. The third type of record, from the standpoint of pupil achievement, is most important, but frequently salient facts that should be accumulated on such records are sadly neglected. This group consists of the cumulative record forms on which should be recorded personnel information, school citizenship estimates, intelligence-test records, aptitude-test records, etc., as well as marks given in the various subjects of study pursued--this latter record is frequently the only one which is emphasized on the permanent school record of the pupil.

Criteria for Devising a Good Record System[1]

A good record system is easy to administer. Simplicity is the key to success in record-keeping. The arrangement of data often determines the complexity of the system. Teachers do not object to devoting a reasonable amount of time to record-keeping if it is a relatively simple affair, but they do object to solving a cross-word puzzle in order to record a small amount of data.

A good record system is cumulative and permanent. A cumulative record makes possible the concentration of the data for each child's school history. A pupil's school record should begin upon receipt of a notice from the bureau of vital statistics of his birth registration, and should continue throughout his school career. Additions and changes should be made at proper intervals, or whenever new information is obtained. Cumulative records should follow the pupil as he progresses in the school system.

They should be compact in character. Expert opinion has recommended cumulative records for more than twenty-five years but many city school record systems are lacking in this quality at present.

Records should be kept of all pupils who have ever

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[1]James H. Dougherty, F. H. Gorman, and C. A. Phillips, Elementary School Organization and Management (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), pp. 313-314.

been in attendance in the school system. A separate file of those who have dropped or graduated should be kept in the central office with specific reasons for removal. A central file of cumulative records should be maintained of all pupils in attendance in the various rooms and buildings. This renders the location of pupils easy.

Good records are of easy access to the teacher. The teacher has more use for the data on school records than any other school officer; therefore they should be of easy access to her. The cumulative record card is a source for studying the characteristics of problem children; also the data included thereon are often necessary to make accurate reports requested by school officers or auxiliary educational agencies.

Good record forms should be durable. Cumulative record cards should be of sufficient durability to stand the normal amount of wear over the period of years for which they were designed to be used.

Necessary Instructional Records[1]

An individual record is necessary for each child. Accounting for each child within a school requires a central or office record, a register for each sub-administrative unit, whether the grade or the home room, liaison records through

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[1]Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940), pp. 327-28.

which transfers within and between school districts may be accomplished, contact records, reports between the school and the home, and appraisal records.

The first need, which is for an individual continuing record, while recognized, is still neglected. Individual records vary from entry in the "school register," or a simple loose-leaf system, to highly involved individual record books used in the more progressive schools. In many schools the individual record is continuing within a single unit, such as the elementary or secondary school, but there is still too little total record continuity between elementary and secondary education. Even the relatively simple type of continuing record, which provides for the minimum recording of social, academic, health progress, achievement tests, and personality and vocational tendencies, is too detailed to be administered within the state as a whole under current district organization.

The register kept by the teacher to record entries, withdrawals, and absences has been generally standarized and is more frequently used than the continuing individual record.

Liaison records. Liaison records are used to transfer students within buildings, between buildings in the same district, and between states. They may be mailing cards, individual check records, or group records, depending upon whether transfers are administered by the day or by the week. Their

purpose and use, not their form, are important.

Home contacts records. Home contacts records include periodic reports to parents upon the child's progress, certificates at the end of the semester, and a diploma at the completion of a school course. Home contacts reports are generally prepared by the teacher, although in highly specialized and large organizations, the counselor may play a part. These reports are temporary in nature, conventionally standardized, and built upon the semester or annual basis. There are many variations of home contacts records, from a highly conventionalized card, with mechanical marks in subject matter only, to descriptive progress reports, and to individual letters mailed directly to parents.

Appraisal records. The gross determination of curricular fit is made through semester or annual promotion and failure reports, age-grade placement, and age-grade-progress studies. The graded organization is based upon the assumption of orderly progress, one grade per year, through the schools. When the theoretical rate of progress is exceeded, the result is acceleration, and where the theoretical rate is not attained, the result is retardation. The relationship of children to progress, regardless of other factors, is secured from a study of failure to make grades in terms of the total possibility. A study of conditions within a building or a total school district may be made from a chart showing a two-way

distribution of age in relation to grade. The age-grade study shows the condition and indicates the point of attack. It is a mass rather than individual appraisal. The age-grade-progress report is much more satisfactory as a basis for intensive study, since it indicates the rate of individual progress through the grades. Since neither of these studies shows cause, however, they must be considered as administrative devices for giving a quick picture of conditions prevailing at any time.

Summary records. Summary records fall into three groups, those required by the school district office, by the state, and by the United States Office of Education. The district and state reports are generally mandatory, while the federal reports, except in the case of Smith-Hughes work and other activity supported in part or in whole by federal subvention, are voluntary.

Records for a Good Inventory System[1]

Schools should be conducted on a businesslike basis, expecially in these years when more and more money is being spent on education. Complete inventories, in addition to being business procedures which taxpayers expect, offer some important, specific advantages to schools.

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[1]Lillian C. Tucker, "Every School Needs a Good Inventory System," School Management, XVIII (August, 1948), 51.

A comprehensive inventory:

1. Gives the teacher a sense of responsibility concerning the equipment in his room, shop, or laboratory. He will be more careful to know the whereabouts and condition of the items assigned him. This "responsibility" does not imply that in the event of loss or breakage the teacher is to make financial restitution. But accounting to the administration helps to promote a psychological effect which is beneficial to the school.

2. Checks on property which is transferred from room to room, or to and from other buildings. Unless carefully directed, this constant moving may cause much loss.

3. Offers a helpful record to a new teacher. He should check actual items with this record, noting any unusual conditions. In the event of a change in personnel during the term, an inventory should be required of the teacher leaving.

4. Affords a teacher the information essential for ordering repairs or replacement parts for equipment in his department as needed. This greatly aids the maintenance program of the school.

5. Assists the instructor in compiling his budget, if he is requesting items of a like or similar kind. This in turn helps to supply necessary data for summer requisitions.

6. Renders an important service to the school system in filing insurance claims in case of a fire.

All inventories naturally take the same general form in that they note item, description, quantity, and price. Other detailed data such as date and source of purchase may be added.

Card files are flexible and lend themselves readily to this sort of record. In addition to a card for each item (or one card noting all items of like kind and price), a sum-

mary card should head each department's set of inventory cards. On this is recorded the total cost of all equipment described.

From the total of these two figures the teacher should subtract those items no longer existing or which have been broken, become obsolete, been transferred or discarded for any reason, as noted on the individual cards. This reconciles the inventory and gives the total value of the items the school currently has in its possession.

Property which may be loaned or removed from the buildings should have the name of the school district plainly marked thereon.

Number plates, stencil die stampings, or any other kind of dependable markings will prove helpful in taking a physical inventory. Simple code systems can be worked out. For instance, all tables of one kind might be marked A, all of another kind B. Pictures can be marked likewise.

There seems to be no explicit criteria as to what constitutes an equipment item to be charged on the books under classification of capital assets, as differentiated from a supply item. The expected length of life and monetary outlay are the principal determining factors. Some authorities believe that a ten-year, ten-dollar minimum should be the basis for capitalization, with all under regarded as supplies. Whatever basis is adopted, judgment

must be exercised in recognizing justifiable exceptions.

The general principles apply to equipment inventories apply equally to supply inventories. Many schools have a central storeroom from which supplies are requisitioned. These should be inventoried by the person in charge.

While a complete inventory of all capital items is most desirable, a school not having any such record might better start on a smaller scale. For example, compile an inventory of larger items only, such as all shop machines--but not the hand tools; files, typewriters, business machines--but not staplers, pencils and inkstands; sewing machines, stoves, refrigerators--but not linen, silverware, and cooking utensils.

In this way, the inventory would include the major items from the standpoint of size, cost, and expected length of usefulness. A review of the items not to be inventoried, however, calls attention to the multitude of comparatively small articles in a well-equipped school. Individually these have small monetary value, but in the aggregate are quite costly. So the more complete the inventory, the more useful it is.

Once a perpetual, annual inventory has been set up in a school system, the valuable service it renders will be recognized by all.

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CHAPTER III

CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

The curriculum should be continually evaluated in terms of the current objectives of the educational program. To the principal, as chief administrator of his school, falls the responsibility of fostering curriculum study and revision if the study so determines. This provides an excellent opportunity to encourage teacher thinking about the total school program in terms of child development. Upon the conclusions of the staff research, the principal organizes and supports the school's curriculum. The following articles should prove helpful in curriculum organization and study.

The Principal and the Curriculum[1]

The principal has a number of important relationships to the curriculum, its reorganization and administration. In most cities principals are requested to serve as members of committees working on curriculum problems. Although, as a matter of policy, principals may not be appointed as chairman of the various committees, teachers look to them for leadership and constructive criticism. As a member of several or all of the subject committees the principal is in a strategic position to obtain a broad view of the entire curriculum program, to coordinate the work of the various groups, and to keep his staff informed of the progress of the general curric-

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[1]Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1944), pp. 119-120.

ulum-revision program.

In addition to and quite apart from his participation in the construction of curricula, the principal has important functions regarding the administration of the curriculum. As a supervisor the principal is called upon to give needed assistance in putting a new course of study into operation. It is he who must assume leadership in adapting the accepted curriculum to the peculiar needs of the local unit of which he has charge and in selecting textbooks and instructional materials. Within his building teachers may be organized into small groups or committees for studying curriculum problems which are peculiar to the locality, for developing those phases in which the general curriculum must be modified to meet conditions in the local unit, and for the selection of materials and their coordination with the changing curriculum. Frequently it is through this field of work that a principal can exert professional leadership which will bear unusual fruit in the professional growth of teachers.

As an administrative and supervisory officer the principal is continuously responsible for the administration of the curriculum in his local school. The time schedule, the instructional program of teachers, the classification of children, in fact, all phases of school work must be organized and operated in accordance with the kind of curriculum (broadly conceived) which it is hoped will function in the school.

Perhaps it is not presumptuous to say that it is within the power of the principal to control the kind of curriculum which it will be possible for teachers to provide for children in the classrooms.

Considering the Activity Curriculum[1]

School activities consist of the ways in which children's time at school is utilized. Since learning comes through participation in activities, a school program must consist of activities. More specifically, a school program must consist of activities which have high potentiality for enabling children to grow and develop toward the goals of education. The question as to what activities shall compose the school program is a most important one in curriculum planning.

A second point that must be kept in mind is that in most cases it is not feasible to plan activities which have a direct relationship with one or more specific objectives. For example, to teach honesty to children in the elementary school a teacher would probably not plan a series of ten-minute lessons on honesty and then teach a lesson each day over a period of weeks. Instead, she would utilize the various situations arising in the course of school activities, have chil-

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[1]Henry J. Otto, Principles of Elementary Education (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1949), pp. 221-223.

dren conduct themselves in honest fashions, and discuss various phases of desirable conduct as the occasions and need for such discussion arise. Similarly, it is very difficult to motivate elementary school pupils to a vigorous study of arithmetic on the basis that they will need to be proficient in arithmetic when they grow up. Children of elementary school age are too immature to appreciate long-term values and therefore derive little or no motivation from the deferred values which teachers try to use so frequently as a means of motivation. Because of children's inability to appreciate long-term values, it is desirable for each activity to have one or more immediate objectives which are meaningful and significant in children's thinking. In some instances these immediate objectives or purposes have an obvious direct relationship to the more general objectives of education. For example, an activity in a second grade might have as its immediate purpose "Learning to make change correctly at the grocery store." At once the reader recognizes the relationship of this immediate objective to the more general one of "The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating."

There are other activities for which the children's immediate purposes seem somewhat unrelated to any items in a formulation of general purposes of education. For example, the children play softball during the play period. The motive

prominent in the children's minds is to have fun playing softball. The teacher's reason for including softball among the activities sponsored by the school is the many opportunities which softball games provide for promoting physical development and social education. In a way both the teacher and the children hold the immediate purpose of enjoying the softball game, but in addition the teacher recognizes the types of educational values in the realms of physical development and social education. In a very real sense the softball game is being used by the school for the purpose of promoting important general objectives of education.

Presumably, in each school activity, the immediate specific objectives of teacher and pupils should be the same so that the activity may proceed with harmony and efficiency, but in most cases the teacher sees--or should see--rather clearly the relationship between the immediate objectives and the long-term or general purposes of education. The children's desire to engage in activities is motivated by interests and needs which are rather immediate in their lives. These same factors explain why the activities which constitute the curriculum are seldom organized around topics or problems which have a direct relationship to general objectives. Yet the school must be sure that the activities sponsored allow for maximum amounts of pupil growth and development in the direction of the general purposes of

education. These are also the reasons why so many school activities have such labels as "making bird houses," "playing house," "playing school," "having a birthday party," "publishing a school paper," "finding out how children live in other lands," and "preparing Christmas baskets for the needy." Such titles reflect dynamic, tangible, and immediate interests of children, and the groups of activities which they suggest must be conducted in such a way that children grow and develop in the directions indicated by the general purposes of education.

The third point about activities which should be kept in mind was partially explained in a preceding chapter: most activities provide opportunity for multiple learnings. An activity such as publishing a school paper gives pupils a chance to improve their reading abilities because they will be reading various books, pamphlets, and magazines to gather information for articles to be written; to improve their penmanship, spelling, and written composition as they write articles, notices, announcements, and news items for the paper; to improve their skills in human relationships as they work together in committees doing the various jobs entailed in preparing and distributing a school paper; and to improve their attitudes and proficiencies in the realm of civic responsibilities as they discharge responsible roles in publishing the school paper.

The analysis could be extended to include many more examples, but enough has probably been said to make clear to the reader that most school activities contain the potentiality for multiple learnings. Because of this indirect relationship frequently found between school activities and the purposes of elementary education, the true appraisal of the program of school life must be sought by making a comparison between the purposes of education and the types of growth and development which children experience.

Making Basic Changes in Curriculum Structure[1]

Assuming that a faculty is ready to undertake a more fundamental program of curriculum improvement, certain factors must be considered if the venture is to be successful.

The program should be democratically planned. Some plans fail because most of the planning is done by the administration. The principal decides that he wants to make changes and proceeds to appoint committees and assign functions without much consultation with the faculty. Such autocratic planning bogs down, usually before the program gets underway. On the other hand, if the principal has followed the plan of studying the program cooperatively and the staff

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[1]Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High School Curriculum (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947), pp. 439-441.

has actually discovered weaknesses which need to be overcome, the chances of success are much better. The plans for curriculum study then originate with the faculty as a whole, and teachers are much more likely to assume responsibility.

Adequate resources should be provided. One of the most important of these resources is good leadership. This should come from the school in most cases. Consultants from other institutions may give valuable assistance, but the continuous day-to-day leadership should be provided for within the school. In small schools, a capable teacher, or the principal, should be designated as curriculum director or coordinator. In large schools, the regularly appointed curriculum director should, of course, provide the leadership. Adequate finances should be provided for the release of key personnel for all or part-time for the purchase of books, pamphlets, courses of study, and the like, and for consultant and secretarial service. Sufficient building space should be provided for a laboratory workshop which would serve as headquarters for the project, and a place conducive to work.

All teachers should be involved. Not all teachers are equally intelligent, equally interested, or equally capable. But all can contribute something of value. The principal who does not utilize the curriculum reorganization program as a means of promoting in-service growth is overlooking one of his best opportunities. But even more important is the fact

that the participation of all in a common enterprise is the best way of underwriting the success of the venture. Otherwise, there is constant danger of "sabotage" from individuals and groups that are not identified with the program, and as a consequence do not understand the significance of the work that is being done.

Community groups and students should participate. In a final analysis the staff of the school, with the approval of the board of education, of course, is responsible for determining the curriculum, but this does not preclude the use of community and student groups for making suggestions, for assisting in gathering data, and for studying the ways in which the school may more effectively utilize the community as a laboratory. The level and extent of participation will have to be determined by the local situation.

The basic issues should be studied by the staff as a whole. There will be many activities that may be delegated to a central curriculum committee, but the basic issues involving the over-all structure of the curriculum need to be studied by the entire staff. These issues would need to be formulated by the group, but the following would probably be included:

1. To what extent should the subject-centered organization be modified?
2. Should the curriculum be organized in terms of "social functions" or "adolescent needs," or some modified plan?

3. Should a program of common learnings (core) be set up?

4. Should the "activities program" be made an integral part of the curriculum?

5. What should be the relationship between the guidance and curriculum organization?

6. What special-interest areas should the school provide for the purpose of meeting the vocational, intellectual, and recreational interests and needs of students?

7. How much pre-planning should be done, and how should this be accomplished?

8. How shall the new program be staffed?

Not all of these issues can be settled until the project is well underway, but they need to be studied and decisions made as sufficient data for solutions become available.

Steps in Curriculum Construction[1]

Various students of curriculum construction have stated the steps to be followed in curriculum revision or reorganization. Although their recommendations differ in detail, the general procedure is somewhat as follows:

1. Determining social needs and problems through the discovery of facts about the conditions of life in the community.

2. A study of human development involving detailed considerations of the nature of growth and the needs of children.

3. Formulating a definite philosophy of education which

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[1]Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, The Teacher and School Organization (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), pp. 343-344.

reflects an understanding of the facts arising from a study of social needs and problems and the basic considerations underlying human development.

4. Translating the philosophy of education into a statement of the purposes for which the school exists.

5. Breaking down each purpose into its several aspects and describing the kinds of behavior in pupils that should result when each aspect of the purpose has been attained.

6. Determining the nature of the learning experiences and instructional material needed to produce the desired forms of behavior.

7. Organizing the learning experiences and instructional materials into a suggested series of teaching units.

8. Constructing experimental teaching units.

9. Trying out the experimental units and revising them in the light of findings growing out of the experimentation.

10. Determining the situations and the means available for gathering evidence revealing the outcomes of learning.

11. Estimating the degree to which the outcomes of learning approximate the established purposes.

12. Revising the curriculum along lines suggested by the evidence concerning the extent to which purposes have been realized.

In actual practice a large number of schools do not follow so comprehensive a series of steps as those just described. Administrators have not seen fit to disregard subject-matter tradition, even though they may believe in a theory of curriculum construction that would ignore it. Forced as they have been frequently to compromise between the need for a functional program and the exigencies of their

situation, they have made only such changes as seemed practical. Yet in spite of the conservatism that characterizes the typical administrator, enormous progress has been made in curricular improvement during the last decade. Large sections of useless materials have been eliminated from the curriculums of the elementary and secondary schools; attention has been centered on realistic purposes of education; some subjects of study have been eliminated from the curriculum, and reorganized programs have brought in new and better arrangements of learning experiences; textbooks have been pushed into a secondary position with a wide variety of source materials taking their place; and, among other changes, thousands of teachers have had their attention centered on the nature of the child and the adolescent, his needs and interests, rather than on the subject matter of instruction.

Coordination of Curriculum with Other Factors[1]

The teacher, as well as other curriculum makers, should bear in mind at all times that the effect produced upon the child is the result of a considerable number of factors only one of which is the curriculum. The direct result is like the resultant of a number of component forces one of which is the curricular materials. Or to use another analogy

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[1]Harl R. Douglass, (ed.), The High School Curriculum (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), pp. 38-39.

the desired result is like a chemical compound or a cake. What is needed to produce the desired compound or cake depends upon what is already in the mixture or likely to be put in soon.

Among the other component environmental forces may be mentioned the following:

1. The previously acquired background of the learner
   a. Vocabulary
   b. Interests
   c. General information
   d. Background in the particular field
   e. Out-of-school experience
   f. Attitudes
2. The home background of the learner
   a. Interest and attitudes of the parents
   b. Opportunities for study--physical aspects, books and periodicals, assistance of parents
3. The effects upon growth by the
   a. Radio
   b. Movies
   c. Newspapers and periodicals
   d. Library
   e. Companions
   f. Work experience
   g. Contacts with adults

The curriculum cannot be planned except in view of, and in adjustment to, the forces which play upon the individual influencing his growth--any more than it can afford to ignore the hereditary factors in growth. The school is indeed a supplementary institution. This fact has important implications for the curriculum construction which should be mentioned here.

The Supplementary Nature of the Curriculum--by reason of its supplementary character the school must keep in at

least fair adjustment to the rest of the learner's environment. This adjustment involves the following relationships:

1. The specifications for the desired product of the schools must be drawn in the light of the conditions and demands of society as the learner will find it, including conditions in contemporary society which call for compensation or corrective education.

2. When some other social institution or area of the learner's environment no longer influences growth toward the objective of education as it did formerly, the school must follow one of three alternatives:
    a. Re-educate the particular social institution or some other agency to take over and serve as a replacement.
    b. Allow the particular educational service to go unperformed.
    c. Adapt the school program so as to assume the particular function no longer operative.

3. When the educative influences of out-of-school experiences duplicate those of the school the school should
    a. Determine the degree to which certain instructional materials and activities are no longer necessary.
    b. Adapt the curriculum so as to no longer include relatively unnecessary materials or activities.

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CHAPTER IV

GROUPING FOR LEARNING

The principal is responsible for grouping the learners into the best possible growth environment. Much discussion and comment is found on this topic but with no unanimity of conclusion. Upon the foundation of educational objectives developed in the staff curriculum study, a grouping plan may be found from the following recommendations that would be harmonious and workable.

Administrative Organization and Grouping[1]

It seems quite clear in the light of results of informal and of controlled experimentation that superior results may be obtained from homogeneous grouping only when adequate and effective adaptation of instruction accompanies grouping. Grouping should be regarded as an administrative device which will facilitate the adaptation of instructional materials and methods to pupils of different levels of ability. It is a plan of sectioning which involves careful attention and much time. It is attended with several obvious dangers incident to any procedure which involves classifying pupils on the basis of mental abilities. If after grouping has been provided an adaptation of materials and

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[1]H. R. Douglass, Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1932), p.347.

methods is not effectively worked out, the procedure has been distinctly a liability rather than an asset.

Grouping should be employed only in those schools in which not only intelligent and careful attention is given to the technical phases of grouping but also in which the instructional force is both competent and willing to modify courses of study and methods of teaching to suit the needs and abilities of the different groups.

Administrative Arrangements for Group Living[1]

As a result of an evaluation of previous practice, the Orange, Texas, public schools now group children for their wholesome development. Assignments to groups are continuous and flexible and are intended to: (a) provide sufficient difference to insure group complexity and yet afford enough similarity for harmonious living; (b) provide the child opportunities to live with mutual satisfaction with his neighbors; (c) assure his living happily with himself; (d) facilitate a normal amount of success of every child without unfavorable comparison with others; (e) provide for the best development of academic powers and mental acumen; and (f) place the child in a similar group as to chronological age, physical development and social maturity. The plan begins at

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[1]Education for All American Children, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators. (Washington: The Commission, 1948), pp. 207-208.

registration Wednesday and Thursday before school starts. At this time basic information is secured. Over the following week-end teachers cooperatively study the data and apply criteria for temporary grouping. Data came from registration, previous information, and the reaction of the teacher who registered the child. When school opens on Monday morning each child belongs to a group into which he can fit. Teachers and administrators make a continuous study of this placement. Changes which seem to be needed are worked out cooperatively and honestly with the child and his parents.

In the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago, six- and seven-year-old children are grouped in four rooms, not as first- or second-graders, but as members of a primary group. In each room there is an equal number of six-year-olds and seven-year-olds. This practice gives children the advantage of working with older or younger children and allows a greater flexibility by treating the four classrooms and the eight teachers as a unit.

The Higgins Elementary School, Detroit, Michigan, is experimenting with a modification of the platoon organization. Called the "Rotary Plan," the experiment divides the pupils into three units: Primary, intermediate, and upper. Teachers work in a single unit only and thus become more closely associated with certain children. Frequent meetings of the teachers within a given unit help to unify their efforts. The plan

is designed to bring children into contact with several teachers and yet to increase the amount of time a child spends with one teacher over a period of years.

The Cornman School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, has no grades. Pupils enter a vestibule class where they are grouped by chronological age. As soon as a child is deemed to be well adjusted to school life in general he is moved to a class based on social maturity. Determination of social maturity is based on the teacher's judgment and on a series of tests. Grouping is completely flexible and a child is moved from group to another, or from one teacher to another, as the need arises.

Evaluation of Ability Grouping[1]

The significant discovery that children differ plays an important part in their classification by ability. Although the subject of ability grouping is controversial in certain respects, the significant evidence will be presented in order to indicate its relation to the classification and progress of pupils.

Rankin has summarized the most significant studies dealing with ability grouping in the following statements:

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[1]William A. Yeager, Administration and the Pupil (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), pp. 136-138.

1. Evidence slightly favored homogeneous grouping as contrasted with heterogeneous grouping, especially where adaptations of methods and materials are made.

2. Most teachers prefer to work with homogeneous rather than heterogeneous groups.

3. Evidence regarding the relative merits of various bases of grouping is inconclusive.

4. Data adequate for evaluating various types of adaptation of materials and methods are not available.

5. Homogeneous grouping is most effective for dull children, and least valuable, at times harmful, for bright children.

6. The particular grade levels and subjects in which homogeneous grouping is most effective have not yet been fully determined.

7. Data regarding the effect of homogeneous grouping upon characteristics of pupils other than skills and knowledge are subjective and inconclusive.

As indicated above, ability grouping has many opponents. Significant arguments advanced against it are:

1. An adequate basis for grouping has not been scientifically determined.

2. Ability grouping does not approach real life situations in any respect.

3. Ability grouping develops class distinction--a sense of inferiority in the lower group and a feeling of superiority in the upper group; a stigma is attached to the lower group.

4. Ability is specific, therefore it is impossible to form groups that are homogeneous in each of the various subject, with a single general classification.

5. Grouping on the basis of special ability is not practical from an administrative viewpoint.

6. The curriculum is not adjusted to the different levels of ability represented by the groups.

7. Ability grouping causes jealousy and resentment on the part of pupils and parents.

8. Teachers are not trained to teach effectively groups at the various levels of achievement.

9. Ability grouping causes an undesirable competitive spirit between pupils, and in some cases between teachers and patrons.[1]

The principles of ability grouping have been adapted to many forms of school organization and pupil classification, on both elementary and secondary levels. In a sense, ability grouping is an attempt to approximate more closely individual instruction while retaining the group instruction principle.

Self-Contained Room vs. Semi-Departmentalization[2]

We are hearing much these days about the evils of departmentalization and now it should be eliminated from the elementary schools. Two decades ago departmentalization was quite generally championed as a means of improving instruction and enriching the curriculum; now it is pronounced wholly bad by some and they argue we should return to the self-contained classroom.

Recent studies as to the relative merits of the one-teacher, self-contained classroom as compared with the semi-

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[1]J. H. Dougherty, F. H. Gorman, and C. A. Phillips, Elementary School Organization and Management (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), p. 265.

[2]Thomas R. Cole, "Extremes and Reversals in Education," American School Board Journal, CXIX (October, 1949), 20.

departmentalized school are difficult to obtain. In fact, we have had but few schools of the larger type during the past two decades that have operated on the one-teacher per-room plan. A very comprehensive study of the two systems of school organization in the Seattle schools was made by Dr. Fred C. Ayer of the University of Washington some years ago when the majority of the elementary schools were operating without any departmentalization.

The ten factors used by Dr. Ayer in making the study were:

1. Attendance--This factor was measured by the ratio of average daily attendance to the average number belonging.

2. Progress--The rate and facility of promotion plus the holding power.

3. Achievement--Ratio of achievement to intelligence both in academic and in special subjects. Subsequent success in high school measured by tests, marks, and amount of work carried.

4. Curriculum--Adaptability to mental, physiological, and social variations of the pupils. Opportunity for earlier beginnings and longer sequences of secondary subjects. Wider variety of offerings and differentiation of courses. The promotion of preparatory, civic, health, cultural, vocational, home membership, and character aims of education.

5. Instruction--Opportunity for specialization. The amount and severity of the teaching load. Stimulus for self-improvement of teacher. Opportunity for personal influence. Individual attention to pupils. Supervised study. Lesson planning. Classroom management.

6. Supervision--Assignment and training of teachers. Discipline. Directed teaching. Inspection of

schoolwork. Relation to special supervisors. Extracurricular activities.

7. Administration--Organization of school program. School movements. Records. Community relations. General cooperation.

8. Guidance--Exploration to discover aptitudes and individual differences. Educational and vocational counsel. Mandatory special training.

9. Socialization--Participation in group activities. Stimulus toward cooperative effort. Training in leadership.

10. Low cost--Buildings and Grounds. Instruction. Supervision. Operation, Maintenance, Administration.

The rank in merit points for each type of school organization was as follows: (Rank 1 is high).

Ten Factors	One-Teacher Type	Semi-Departmental-Type
1. Attendance	2	1
2. Progress	2	1
3. Achievement	2	1
4. Curriculum	2	1
5. Instruction	2	1
6. Administration	1	2
7. Supervision	2	1
8. Guidance	2	1
9. Socialization	2	1
10. Low Cost	1	2

It will be noted that the semi-departmental school ranked first in all of the ten factors except administration and cost. There was but little question that the semi-departmental school had an interesting program of work for the pupils which was shown by its widespread approval of the parents.

In approving Dr. Ayer's report it was decided that grades 1-3 should not be departmentalized but that grades 4-6 or 8 should be semi-departmentalized. The amount and character of departmentalization was to vary according to the size of the school.

The Use of Social Criteria in Grouping[1]

The fact that social factors play a prominent role in a child's conduct and performance at school has probably always been recognized by some teachers but it is only within the past decade or so that careful research has explored this phase of child life sufficiently to illuminate it for all of us and to give us fundamental insights and techniques. What, then, are some of the fundamental issues, facts, and techniques which all of us should know and use?

Among the fundamental issues, four will be characterized in this article. The first of these issues pertains to the purposes or objectives of education. We have become increasingly concerned (and rightly so) about educating our children so that they will be capable of living effectively in a democratic society. That may sound trite--but wait a minute! What does it really mean? Obviously it means a large number of very important things and among these is the

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[1]Henry J. Otto, "The Use of Social Criteria in Grouping Children at School," Childhood Education, XXII (March, 1946), 326-327.

fact that every child, in the process of growing up, should develop a wholesome, well-integrated personality. It also means that every child should grow up in wholesome adjustment to his associates (young and old) and to his environment. Personality development and social adjustment have become important objectives of education to supplement our former narrower emphasis upon mental and academic development. For what does it profit a man to become an intellectual giant if in the process he becomes unhappy and constantly at odds with himself and so ornery that no one wants him around?

The second basic issue is the nature of personality development and the processes and circumstances which makes for wholesome personality. Several writers have expressed their views of personality, not as a thing or collection of different traits and capacities, but rather as the dynamic process by which each individual strives to build up, maintain, and protect his private world and express directly or in disguised fashion his basic feelings toward people and situations.

Personality development begins in infancy and probably continues throughout life. It comes about as one interacts with the persons, situations, and material objects in one's environment. In the process each individual must come to know himself, to appreciate himself, and to have confidence in himself. A person cannot be adjusted even reason-

ably well unless he believes in himself and feels that he has attained a worthy and effective selfhood. In order to achieve this feeling of worthy selfhood and harmony with himself the person has need for contact with reality, harmony with reality, increasing self-direction, and a fair balance between success and failure. The only way of being certain that one is normal and valued by those around him is to note that one has been successful in meeting situations. Either too much success or too much failure may warp a person's judgment of his proper role in life.

The third basic consideration is social adjustment, which is closely interwoven with personality development. Everyone needs to learn how to get along with other people and how to relate himself to the persons, events, and material objects in his environment. How one relates himself to others depends in large measure upon how one feels about himself and how others relate themselves to him. This broad area of a child's education may be classified under the heading of the "objectives of human relationship." One's social needs are just as basic as one's physiological needs. All persons have need for affection or love, a feeling of belonging, a feeling of likeness to others, and a feeling of security and status in one's social groupings.

The fourth basic consideration consists of the broad and complex group of psychological factors involved in under-

standing children's needs, interests, motivations, and behaviors. Intelligent guidance of children's growth and development along physical, mental, social, and emotional lines requires a breadth of knowledge of child psychology. This knowledge about children and how they grow and develop, the forces which motivate children to action, the way in which their basic needs are dynamics in their behavior, and how to structure the environment for different children so that each child may achieve mental, physical, personality, and social development in accordance with his capacities must all be translated into practical procedures for grouping, teaching, and dealing with children. Altogether too frequently we have allowed school machinery to operate quite oblivious to the true facts about the psychology of childhood.

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CHAPTER V

THE TEACHING LOAD

Along with learning groups and scheduling, the teaching load is to be considered. An exact mathematical number for all situations has not been accepted. Since different learners and learning situations would require different growth environment, perhaps there is no set number to be expected. The following items may prove helpful in solving this problem for a particular situation.

Importance of Adjusting the Teaching Load[1]

What constitutes an appropriate load for the teacher is not a new question, but the rising tide of secondary education, with an attendant broadening of the curriculum and general extension of school service, has brought such rapidly mounting school costs as to focus an increased measure of attention on this problem. The recent financial distresses of the schools sharpened the demand that costs be held down or reduced, despite mounting enrollments. The taxpayer watches the educational expenditure, often applying a dollar-and-cents gauge, as in the case of an automobile factory or a packing plant.

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[1] L. V. Koos, et al., Administering the Secondary School. (New York: American Book Company, 1940), p. 379.

Of another view is the teacher, who is most favorably situated for observing the educational product. When a greater quantity of work is demanded, he insists that it can only be accomplished at the expense of the quality of the product; that if the number of pupils put through the mill is increased, the educational change effected in each will be decreased. In this contention the teacher is backed by college authorities who are more concerned with quality than with quantity in the high-school output.

Amid these conflicting forces, the principal will hold that the education of the pupil is the paramount criterion for his guidance. In maintaining this standpoint and in conveying it to others, however, he labors under a severe handicap, namely the lack of objective measurement of the educational product. He has no dollars-and-cents gauge on output, as he has for investment. Indeed, he must again and again labor to convince superficial thinkers that the output is not measured by a mere count of the boys and girls who are being graduated from the high school. Despite this basic difficulty, the administrator must formulate policies and make decisions regarding the teacher's load. In carrying on this function he needs all knowledge available concerning the various factors which determine the load.

Some Factors in the Teaching Load[1]

In the early stages of his work the schedule-maker must collect considerable information regarding the teachers. Decisions from the proper school officials determining the number of teachers for the following school term should be known before construction on the final form of the daily schedule may be intelligently undertaken. The best available estimates of pupil enrollment determine the probable number of teachers in many large school systems. In smaller school systems these carefully prepared figures on probable enrollment constitute a practical basis for requesting and approving the total number of teachers.

Professional opinion favors a maximum pupil-teacher ratio of approximately 25 to 1. Most accrediting agencies and state departments of education now have standards permitting a maximum pupil-teacher ratio of 30 to 1. The pupil-teacher ratio is inclined to be much larger in larger high schools than in small schools.

The number of regular classes daily for each teacher is usually recommended to be five. Teachers in small high schools are apt to teach more classes daily than teachers in large high schools. The economic depression starting in 1929 caused a significant increase in the average number of classes

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[1]R. E. Langfitt, The Daily Schedule and High School Organization (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 62-63.

assigned to teachers daily.

The maximum norm for pupil-periods on the teaching schedule tends to be 150 daily or 750 weekly. In spite of some studies which found that some kinds of learning seem to occur as readily in large classes as in small classes, teachers as a group are strongly opposed to large classes. The schedule-maker is generally limited by local school policy, state requirements, or regulations of accrediting associations in fixing the maximum pupil load per teacher.

Other factors in the teaching load, which must be considered by the schedule-maker in the light of various regulations and limitations, include the number of different class preparations, the relative difficulty of different subjects, the length of class periods, the length of the school day, and the extent of participation by teachers in extra-classroom activities.

Studies Concerning the Teaching Load[1]

Many city superintendents of schools have expressed the opinion that an elementary class of 40 pupils, a six-hour day, and the extra duties associated with this teaching assignment are not an excessive load. Even though such an opinion is debatable, there are reasons behind it which new

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[1]Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, The Teacher and School Organization (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), pp. 223-224.

teachers should understand. Primarily, the pressure for financial economy is the largest factor that has influenced superintendents to schedule large classes. Acting as agents of school boards, they are required to keep costs as low as possible. Whenever enrollments increase out of proportion to income, large classes have been created as a means of holding costs within the limits of the budget. At the same time, the scheduling of large classes has been justified by superintendents in the light of several research studies showing that there is little relationship between class size and pupil achievement as represented by test results.

In these research studies, small and large classes have been defined in various ways. In general, the smaller group has usually enrolled 20 or fewer pupils and the larger from 35 to 45. However, the large class in some experimental situations has enrolled as many as 60, 70, or even 100 pupils.

The results of these investigations of class size in relation to pupil achievement cannot be accepted without definite qualifications. On the basis of achievement tests in subject matter, the small classes offered little, if any, advantage over the large class. This would seem to suggest that where good methods of drill are used, class size is not too significant a factor in this kind of learning. But when attention is given to current considerations of growth in all aspects of childhood and youth, including social atti-

tudes, habits of work, quality of critical thinking, healthful living, ability to get along with others, skill in group processes, the application of principles to life situations, the interpretation of information and many other specific aspects of living, the same generalizations respecting class size are untenable. Considerable research is needed before sane conclusions may be drawn about class size in relation to learning; any new research undertaken must deal with the total learning situation, not a narrow aspect of it.

The empirical findings of classroom teachers favor small classes as against large classes for several reasons. In a study involving almost 5,000 classes in both the elementary and secondary schools, teachers indicated that large classes created the following types of problems:

1. Inability to become acquainted with pupils and to give the individual help needed.
2. Crowding of room and inadequate facilities sufficient to impair the program.
3. Load of papers, clerical work, records, etc.
4. Problems of management, organization, control, discipline.
5. Extent of ability range.
6. Presence of problem pupils: retarded, poorly prepared, or handicapped.
7. Load of making preparations and plans, and devising teacher-made materials.[1]

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[1]The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load, Research Bulletin, Vol. XVII, No. 5 (Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, November, 1939), 252.

When asked in this same study what the maximum number of pupils was who could be taught advantageously in one class, the teachers had a definite answer. They regarded 30 pupils as an average-size class with the maximum placed at 35.

Assigning the Teaching Load[1]

Before going far with the building of the daily schedule of classes, the principal needs full information concerning the number of teachers available. The data concerning probable pupil enrollment aid in determining the number of teachers necessary. The principal also needs to know the training, the experience, the fitness, the likes and the dislikes of each teacher employed. In six-year high schools, he must have clearly in mind the policy relative to assignment of teachers to either the lower or the upper unit or to both units. Desirable articulation is more easily secured when certain teachers have duties in both units than when they are assigned to only one unit.

The size of the classes depends somewhat upon the subject, the method, the school, the teacher, the size of classrooms, the equipment, the number of teachers employed, and the number of pupils enrolled. In general, it is not wise to provide a class for fewer than eight or ten pupils,

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[1]C. R. Maxwell and L. R. Kilzer, High School Administration (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1936), pp. 171-173.

but this depends somewhat upon the subject and upon the size of the high school. If a number of pupils have taken first-year Latin, it is unfair not to permit them to carry second-year Latin the following year even though the class be small. In some classes the number of pupils may be permitted to reach 35 or 40. In physical education and chorus the number may even be larger. When a subject requires that much individual attention be given each pupil, the number enrolled must be kept lower. No convincing evidence is at hand to indicate the optimum number of pupils in the various subjects and classes in high school. In general, it may be said that the size of most classes may be increased somewhat without causing any appreciable reduction in the efficiency of the teaching. If the teacher of a natural-science subject uses the demonstration method to a large extent, he can teach more pupils in a given class section than when he uses the individual laboratory method. Limited budgets may reduce the number of available teachers and may make it necessary to increase somewhat the size of the average class. If the local school eliminates the weaker teachers and retains the stronger ones its efficiency may actually be increased by reducing the number of teachers and by increasing the average size of classes. An unprecedented enrollment may cause the size of the classes to increase, but this is not a serious handicap if kept within reasonable bounds. The size of the classrooms

is often an important factor in the determination of class size.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, in discussing the teaching load, recently said:

> An average enrollment in the school in excess of thirty pupils per teacher shall be considered as a violation of this standard. For interpreting this standard the principal, vice-principals, study-hall teachers, vocational advisers, librarians, and other supervisory officers may be counted as teachers for such portion of their time as they devote to the management of the high school. In addition, such clerks as aid in the administration of the high school may be counted on the basis of two full-time clerks for one full-time teacher.[1]

The North Central Association also recommends (1) that the pupil-teacher ratio be 25 to 1, (2) that the teacher teach five classes daily, and (3) that the total number of pupil-periods per teacher be 150 daily. The number and kinds of daily preparations should, of course, be kept in mind when teaching load is being considered. In most high schools it is possible to assign teachers so that some may teach in their major fields only, while none needs teach in a field in which his preparation is less than that represented by a college minor. This plan tends to lighten the teacher's preparation significantly. More clerical, administration, and extra-curricular work may be required of those whose daily preparation is comparatively light. Experienced teachers should usually have heavier loads than inexperienced teachers.

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[1] "Proceedings of the Commission of Secondary Schools," North Central Association Quarterly, X (July, 1935), 99.

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CHAPTER VI

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SCHEDULE

By proper scheduling the principal provides system and order for the actual work of his school. Haphazard planning of the daily schedule will result in much waste of time, loss of morale throughout, and lack of confidence in the planning administrator. By building a smooth-running program for carrying on the full curriculum, the principal may gain respect from staff and students that will carry through all phases of school contact. Some suggestions on this topic are listed below.

Guiding Principles to Be Observed in Scheduling[1]

What principles or standards shall govern this task of drawing up the schedule? Quite clearly, the function should be performed in the light of certain goals to be attained, certain instructional and learning conditions to be established. The following are what appear to be the more important considerations, listed as principles to be observed:

One, the schedule should afford each pupil the opportunity to pursue studies which his individual needs and interests justify him in desiring. The realization of this criterion is of necessity limited by the offering of the

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[1]L. V. Koos, et al., Administering the Secondary School (New York: American Book Company, 1940), pp. 287-289.

school. It is the schedule, not the program of studies, with which we are here concerned. The principle simply means that if chemistry is the elective subject which fits John's needs and interests, the schedule should be made to accommodate John rather than be drawn up so arbitrarily as to force him into French or typewriting. While the principle may seem obvious, its wholehearted acceptance by the schedule maker multiplies the difficulty of his task.

Two, as may be judged to follow from the first criterion, the school schedule must be based on and prepared in the light of the choices of subjects made by the pupils under guidance. A question of priority is here raised and settled. Before the schedule of classes can be or should be made, the pupils will register on cards, or slips, their choices of subjects, profiting by such advisement as the school's guidance program affords. From such registration cards, the schedule is derived.

Three, teacher qualifications must be thoughtfully weighed and optimally used. Usually this principle has reference to the subjects in which teachers are prepared and for which they are certified. In those states where subject certification prevails, the schedule maker is compelled to pay close attention to this factor. The principle, however, implies more than a respect for college semester hours. It may well involve the careful assigning of teachers to classes

of various types, ages, and interests, according to the sex, age, experience, and personalities of the teachers. Such matters as special aptitudes, physical strength, and extra-curricular responsibilities must often be considered in the scheduling of teachers to classes and to schoolrooms.

Four, the schedule must make it possible for teachers to know pupils and to know them well enough to individualize educational treatment. In a thoughtful study Harry L. Baker found that "High-school teachers know less than a fourth of the facts about their pupils which educators, guidance specialists, and psychologists consider of importance in the educational treatment of individual children."[1] Is this lack of knowledge of pupils attributable to the current state of extreme departmentalization which gives each teacher slender contacts with many pupils rather than intensive contacts with a few pupils? Baker advances it as one explanation.

Acceptance of this principle in schedule making would entail changes of a revolutionary character in the organization of many of our secondary schools. It is not easy to answer under just what conditions of numbers and of contacts a teacher can be expected really to know his pupils. However, the next section of this chapter presents analyses of some

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[1] "High-School Teachers' Knowledge of Their Pupils," School Review, XLVI (March, 1938), 187.

schedules which without doubt represent a serious lack of respect for this principle.

Five, the schedule must equalize the load of teachers, giving due consideration to all the factors that contribute to a teaching load. The intimate relationship of the functions of making the school schedule and of assigning the teaching load is readily apparent. To build the schedule so as to be just to all the teachers and likewise thoughtful of their convenience and comfort is to make a vital contribution to faculty morale.

Six, the schedule should equalize class sections according to standards established in advance. For example, if the 90 freshmen of a school are to be taught English in three sections, it is poor scheduling to have those sections enrolling 15, 30, and 45, respectively. Careful thought should be given to the desired size of sections when the school schedule is prepared and again when the pupils' schedules are made up.

Seven, the schedule must be made to give each pupil and teacher as simple and regular an arrangement of his class and study-hall engagements as is possible. It should be made easy for pupils and teachers to establish habits--habits of being in a given place at a given time, of having in hand the correct books or other materials required for each class, of having outside preparation made, and so on. By reducing as

much as possible of one's life to routine, energies may be concentrated to greater advantage. The best practical schedule for the school is a daily schedule--the same subjects coming at the same time and in the same place every day. There is a tendency in some schools--especially junior high schools--to overlook the significance of time-and-place regularity on a simple daily basis and to build schedules quite largely on a weekly basis. Where such practice is being followed, realization of this principle will necessitate reorganizing the program of studies on a five-days-a-week basis before construction of the schedule can be started.

Eight, the schedule should provide for such alternation of the activities of the pupil as will obviate fatigue and respect convenience. If the pupil has separate study periods, they should be scheduled in some degree of alternation with his subjects, thus contributing to a restful variation in activity. If the pupil's subjects involve his presence in parts of the building which are relatively remote from each other, the time arrangement of his day should be planned with a view to convenience. To achieve conditions favorable for learning by a sensible conservation of time and energy is the purpose of this principle.

Nine, the schedule should aim at the most appropriate use of the space, the varied facilities, and the equipment of the school. Axiomatic as this principle may seem, its reali-

zation depends on the schedule maker's well-developed understanding of the material requirements for the teaching of the various subjects. Just as the provision of a well-planned, well-equipped building is testimony to high-grade professional practice in education, so the maximum use of those facilities is a challenge to organizational ability and to educational statemanship.

Ten, the schedule is the means of assuring the smooth functioning of the school from the very beginning of the year or term for which it is made. The implication of this principle is that all the steps in schedule making must be carried out in advance of the period which the schedule is to serve. Adjustments will always be necessary when a schedule is first put into operation, but adequate foresight will render them few and minor in character. The school which is started without confusion or lost time claims the respect of pupils, parents, and teachers.

Gathering Preliminary Information[1]

The principal or his schedule committee either must already have acquired the following information fundamental to schedule-making or must acquire it:

1. The structure and plan of administration of various curricula: which subjects are constants and which are variables.

2. The probable number of enrollments in each subject.

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[1]H. R. Douglass, Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1932), p. 130.

3. The standard, minimum, and maximum size of class sections in various subjects.
4. The number of class sections necessary in each subject.
5. The plan for forming class sections.
6. The number and types of rooms available.
7. The organization of the school day: the length and number of periods, the beginning and dismissing hours, and the length and hour of the lunch period or periods.
8. Special problems; for example, overlapping sessions made necessary by building congestion, and time available of part-time instructors or supervisors.
9. Data concerning teachers: preparation, experience, preferences as to duties, and special fitness for different typesof activities.
10. What shall be regarded as the standard teaching load.

Building the Schedule[1]

Methods for construction of schedules. With information regarding the preceding topics, the administrator is equipped with the necessary data and knowledge for use as the basis in outlining the daily plan of work for his school. There are, in general, three methods of working out a schedule which will provide for the different factors involved. These are the mosaic, the block, and the combination methods.

The mosaic method. The commonest method is a sort of trial and error procedure in which teachers, rooms, and

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[1]J. B. Edmonson, J. Roemer, and F. L. Bacon. The Administering of the Modern Secondary School. (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1948), pp. 117-119.

class sections are fitted together in the schedule in the manner that seems most satisfactory and efficient. The method cannot be used satisfactorily in large schools where so many complex factors enter into the construction of the schedule. It is best adapted to schools of from 100 to 800 enrollment. In making the schedule for a school with an enrollment of less than 800, the administrator generally knows from first-hand experience the different matters that must be taken into consideration and adjusted. Since most secondary schools fall into this enrollment class, the mosaic method ranks first in frequency of use.

The three steps in procedure generally followed are: (1) to assign sections to class periods and to teachers, (2) to fill in room assignments, and (3) to check for conflicts. The third step is the most difficult, and administrators have been known to spend weeks trying to iron out difficulties and avoid conflicts. A variety of devices have been used in trying to speed up assignments and avoid conflicts. Administrators have tried pins, colored pegs, blocks, cards, and various other movable objects in putting together their "jig-saw schedule puzzles."

The block method. A second method gets is name from the procedure used, which consists of arranging all sections in nonconflicting groups or blocks. Each period in the school day, exclusive of the activity period, is generally regarded

as a block or unit. Students in each year or semester class are distributed to class divisions which are assigned as units to class sections. In making these assignments, the administrator should have at hand: (1) a list showing the enrollment in each class, (2) information on rooms, and (3) data on teachers to be assigned to the various sections. Conflicts may be more easily avoided when dividing the classes into groups if the class is first divided into curriculum groups such as college preparatory, general, commercial, etc., and then subdivided. This system cannot be used to eliminate all conflicts, especially in a school where the curriculum is not uniform or where there is much flexibility between various curriculums. Where several curriculums and many electives in each curriculum are offered, it is obvious that individual choices of students will lead to many conflicts. These will come to light when the student's individual program card is being made out. Approximately the same number of class sections must be assigned to each block in order to balance the schedule from the point of view of students, teachers, and plant limitations. Many schools attempt to assign students to sections on the basis of ability. Then, it is usually desirable to assign at least two sections of the same course to the same period of the daily schedule. The larger the school, the more possibilities of this kind exist.

Variations in the block method. The block type of

schedule may be either horizontal or staggered. In the horizontal arrangement, the first block or period, for example, runs throughout the week at the same time each day. In the staggered variation, the block is set at the first period of the day on Monday and Tuesday, the fourth period on Wednesday and Thursday and the eighth period on Friday, or any other combinations that may seem desirable. The same scheme applies to the other periods of the day.

The combination method. A procedure consisting of a combination of the mosaic and block methods is carried out in constructing the schedules of many schools. The procedure is to place as many as possible of the nonconflicting groups of courses by the block method. In completing the schedule and adjusting parts where conflicts exist, the mosaic method is used.

Scheduling in the Elementary School[1]

In the making of programs, or the approving of programs submitted, the principal should work with certain constructive ideas in mind. He must of course see that the allotted times figure out correctly, that the recesses and dismissals come as they should, that schedules do not conflict with assembly periods, that the maximum and minimum time allotments

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[1]Ellwood P. Cubberly, The Principal and His School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923), pp. 164-165.

prescribed are not exceeded, that the work to be supervised by special teachers comes in proper rotation so far as is possible, and that the number of periods for each subject per week are as they should be. In addition the following principles ought to find embodiment, so far as can be done, in the permanent programs:

1. After the opening exercises should come one of the more difficult subjects, and preferably the one that is hardest for the teacher to teach.

2. Subjects similar in character, such as writing and drawing, phonics and word study, reading and literature, should not ordinarily follow one another.

3. Similarly, subjects in which the school is taught as a whole should not follow one another, some sectionaly subject coming in between.

4. Subjects requiring good muscular control, such as writing or drawing, should not immediately follow a recess period.

5. Class work in physical training should not either just precede or immediately follow a recess.

6. Subjects which require the use of special material, such as drawing or science, should come when such special material can be taken care of with the least waste of time. If special rooms are to be used, then conflict between classes in the use of rooms must be avoided.

7. Something of a balance should be retained between the work of the morning and that of the afternoon, not all the easier subjects being placed in the afternoon, though the more exacting subjects may well come in the morning.

8. A heavy or an exacting subject, or one requiring physical activity, should not be placed immediately after lunch.

9. Subjects requiring close mental work should alternate, where possible, with subjects requiring motor activity.

10. Study periods with a teacher should not immediately precede recitation periods in that subject, as this plan tends to prevent the formation of habits of independent thought.

11. The number of subjects per day, and the time given each subject should vary with the grade periods, becoming longer as the children grow older. Recitation periods in the first grade should not ordinarily exceed fifteen minutes, in the second grade not over twenty minutes, and so on.

12. If the work of special teachers must be provided for, the subjects they supervise should be arranged, so far as can be done, that they can visit the classes in rotation on the days or halfdays they visit the school for supervision, and thus avoid disarranging the school programs the days they visit the school.

13. The degree of flexibility and variability in a program may very properly vary with the experience and ability of the teacher concerned.

Scheduling and the Educational Needs of Today[1]

Reorganization, administratively, will not bring about the needed changes in the program of the public high school in America. Many reorganization plans have been advocated and adopted without carrying with them an iota of change as far as the program of instruction is concerned.

The whole junior high school movement is a case in point. So is the development of elaborate systems of guidance and counseling. Organizational changes almost never bring about the desired changes in the nature of the learning process.

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[1]Paul W. Pinckney, "Organization for Improved Learning," Educational Leadership, VI (March, 1949), 385-386.

Fundamental to such changes are changed points of view on the part of teachers and administrators that follow careful study and consideration of the contributions of psychologists, physiologists, biologists, anthropologists, sociologist, philosophers, and professional educators as they relate to the problems of a particular school.

However, many teachers and administrators have made or are making such investigations with the result that they wish to make changes in their teaching that are next to impossible in high schools as presently organized. Certain changes in organization are essential if such teachers and administrators are to have any real opportunity to use the knowledges and techniques they are gaining in furthering the education of young people in our secondary schools.

The program must be so organized that part of the school day, week, or year of each pupil is spent in areas of experience in which all may participate and the remainder of the time in furthering individual and special group interests, both vocational and avocational. In the first years of the secondary school the amount of time devoted to the areas in which all will have learning experiences will be large. It will decrease from year to year as individual and special group interests receive more emphasis.

In using the phrases "areas in which all may have experiences" and "common learnings," no attempt is made in

this article either to advocate or oppose a core course in common learnings. A proposed plan, however, is outlined which makes it possible to organize a school so that larger areas of experience than those allowed for in traditional subject fields may be developed, both within the "areas in which all may have learning experiences" and in the areas to be developed for individual and special group interests.

In our opinion, there is a large area of organized school work in which all young people should have experiences. This statement must not be interpreted to carry with it the implication of minimum standards of accomplishment nor that any two young people working in these areas will have the same experiences, or even, necessarily similar experiences. What experiences each has will be determined by a variety of conditions, including previous experiences, maturity, interest, ability, emotional stability, and others which the reader will add. The statement does not carry the implication that pupils with a wide range of previous experience, maturity, interest, ability, or emotional stability will be working together as a group to solve problems in which all, or nearly all, are interested and to which all make contributions. This means that provision must be made within the school organization for a flexible program and grouping of subjects so that any or all the subject fields may be called upon to aid in solving the problem at hand.

Probably the subject matter needed for the development of the "areas in which all should experience" in the secondary school are and can be included in the presently organized language arts (English), mathematics, science, physical education, health, industrial arts, homemaking, music, and art courses. The modern high school will be so organized as to:

> Make it possible for the same group of young people to work together for longer than one period and for longer than one semester.
>
> Make it possible for one teacher to lead and advise a group of pupils in solving problems that extend beyond the traditional boundaries of one subject.
>
> Make it possible for two or more teachers to work together in helping a group of young people solve their problems.
>
> Make it possible for the principal to organize groups of teachers during school time to study the learning process, to develop better techniques, of teaching, and to discuss, work upon, and solve any problems important to the group.

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CHAPTER VII

OPENING AND CLOSING THE SCHOOL

Complete and adequate planning is necessary if the opening and closing phases of the school are to operate without confusion. There are many details to be accomplished. Full instructions must be made available to staff and students. These instructions must leave nothing to doubt. Basic planning considerations are noted here for aid at these school times.

Importance of Planning in Opening the Year[1]

In anticipation of and in connection with the opening of a new school year there are many important problems of management. Although students may have been registered at the close of the previous year, there will be many individual cases to be handled for adjustment or changes at the opening of the new year, and unexpected new students are apt to appear. Classes will have to be rechecked for size, and for room assignment, conflicts in the program adjusted, home-room organization effected and student club meetings scheduled. The checking of supplies for teachers, a reconsideration of the use of departmental instruction, the planning for fire drills, and for teachers' meetings--all suggest matters about

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[1]Jesse B. Sears, Public School Administration (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), pp. 383-384.

which confusion frequently occurs in the opening days of school. The answer to all this is careful planning.[1] Many schools spend a week unraveling the confusion created in the first days of school and in doing so lay a foundation for low student and staff morale for weeks ahead. Administration is paid to foresee and forestall such difficulties.

The administration of a school is complicated by the fact that there are so many tasks to be performed. Even though many of these can be planned for in advance there are many that appear without warning or in unexpected form. Where principals have tried to list the duties they have to perform the list is invariably very long and the tasks range from making simple decisions to solving complicated problems. There is always the question of whether a young principal will become enmeshed and finally succumb to the complication, or whether he will meet the tasks as they arise. Some principals fail because they lose perspective. They fail to separate major from minor tasks and to classify lesser tasks as they relate to more important ones. Many fail because they do not delegate responsibility to others. Even though they may see each of the many tasks in its proper perspective they fail because they prefer to perform it themselves

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[1]Thomas C. Prince, "Less Departmentalization in the Elementary Schools," The American School Board Journal, III (September, 1945), 25-26.

rather than assign it to another. This type of principal usually becomes overworked, a little impatient, and finally, either aggressive, domineering, or confused and self-pitying.

What is needed is planning--see the tasks clearly and classify their bearing upon major problems. Since staff organization is built up around the major problems--instruction, guidance, research, supervision, administration--it provides a basis for assigning each problem to someone for handling. When a problem has been assigned to a teacher, a counselor, a vice-principal, or a dean the principal should consider that person definitely in charge and should look to him for results. Making assignments and then retaining such oversight of performance as to dictate method of handling is not a proper concept of delegation of authority in administration.

General Procedure for Opening the School[1]

The general job of the principal is to set up sufficient mechanical, arbitrary directions to assure the smooth functioning of his school on the first day. Such directions are not necessarily permanent, but all teachers should study them in advance and follow them during the first day.

Administrative assistants and teachers of long expe-

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[1]P. W. L. Cox, and R. E. Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision (New York: American Book Company, 1934), pp. 143-144.

rience should be freed from some routine duties for the first few days, and assigned the tasks of "Filling up the holes." To one may be assigned the incoming class; to another, new entrants who have already earned some high school credits; to a third, all pupils who desire to change electives; a fourth may meet all parents and visitors; and a fifth may take charge of all corridor passing and posting of signs to aid pupils in finding their way. One or more capable teachers should be unassigned or given only light duties in order to be free for other problems of registration at the opening of the school year as they may develop. To these teachers with administrative duties is given the responsibility for making definite though temporary decisions in case any unforeseen difficulties arise. To them may be assigned capable pupils who will serve them as clerks and as guides for new teachers and pupils. Sometimes one pupil is trained to perform the less difficult routine duties of a teacher. With such pupil assistance, each teacher is enabled to render more professional service in individual pupil guidance, in conferences with parents and teachers, and in general registration assistance.

Definite and adequate arrangements should be made to give assistance and advice to each new pupil and to parents and other visitors who seek information and directions. All teachers, pupils, parents, and visitors should be referred

to one or another of the administrative assistants.

Unless the administrative machinery for the first day is functioning very smoothly, the principal should carefully avoid any extended conferences on the first day of school. A definite period in the day may be reserved by the principal for any talks with teachers or pupils who have problems requiring the special attention of the principal on the first day. In general, however, the principal must reserve most of his time to inspect, supervise, and change, if necessary, any part of the administrative activities. Above all, his general bearing and manner should show cheerfulness and confidence.

Preparation for Closing the School[1]

It is just as necessary to prepare for the end of the school term as to prepare for the opening of school. Probably the best procedure to follow is to include all necessary announcements relative to the closing of school in a bulletin which is issued to all teachers sufficiently far in advance of the close of school so that teachers will not be unduly rushed in compiling the necessary records. Placing all such requirements in a bulletin will insure the

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[1]P. B. Jacobson, and W. C. Reavis, Duties of School Principals (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942), pp. 69-70.

principal against neglecting to secure information which he should have on file in the office. Such a bulletin should be issued at least a month before the end of school and a check list should be prepared on which may be recorded those items that teachers have completed.

As a list of topics for such a final bulletin to teachers, the following is suggestive:

1. A resume of the grading system.
2. Instructions for filing in the office the final reports of pupil progress.
3. The final examination schedule, if such examinations are held.
4. List of pupils, to be filed by subject or grade.
5. Procedures to be followed in collecting textbooks.
6. Collection of fines on misused books.
7. The return of locker keys.
8. The date on which teachers may leave. Unless this is made specific, the principal will be besieged with requests for special consideration.
9. Teachers' requests for supplies and equipment. These may have been collected earlier. When such information is collected will depend on budget procedure.
10. Teachers' requests for repairs or building changes. It is quite possible that the necessity for repairs and alterations has been surveyed earlier in the year.

This list is suggestive rather than inclusive. The items to be included in any school bulletin for teachers relative to the closing of school will be conditioned by the

organization and policies in force locally.

It will insure the orderly collection of the necessary materials to refer to specific items in the daily bulletin, with the date on which each item is due.

Final Checkup for Teachers[1]

Two weeks before the close of school, each teacher is given a complete outline of the things which must be done by the end of the year and a list of the reports which must be submitted. On each day of the last week, each teacher is given a reminder of the specific things which must be completed on that particular day. For the last day of school, the teacher is again given a list of the things which must be done before he can receive his last salary check. This includes checking in at the office the following: duplicate report cards, alphabetized; adviser's scholarship cards; subject choice cards with tally sheets; grade folders containing duplicate class rolls and marks; copies of all examination questions; administration notebooks; summer addresses; list of honor pupils; and keys.

The proper care of keys is a real problem, and unless there is a definite and accurate system in use, many keys will be lost and there will be many locks for which there

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[1]N. W. Newsom and R. E. Langfitt (eds.), Administrative Practices in Large High Schools (New York: American Book Company, 1940), pp. 73-75.

are no keys. Unfortunately, few architects give this problem the consideration it deserves and fail to see that there is a well-designed system for taking care of keys. A few manufacturing concerns have developed very good systems recently and undoubtedly these will have an effect on the solution of the problem.

In our own school the keys are kept in a large cabinet with panels for the keys for different sets of locks. The keys for each lock have a special numbered hook. When the teacher wishes to secure a key, he writes his name and the lock number (every lock in the building is numbered) on a small tag, which is turned in at the office. It is placed on the hook so that in case the other key is lost a duplicate can be made.

In addition, we have an index key card for every employee, and entries are made on these cards as keys are given out. At the close of school each teacher fastens a small tag to each key, showing the name of the teacher and the number of the lock. As keys are turned in, they are checked against the record on the key card. When a key is lost, the employee is required to pay for having a duplicate made.

At the close of the year each teacher is requested to hand in a sealed list, signed or unsigned, of suggestions for improvement of the school. The principal has found over a period of years that this is an excellent means of getting

helpful suggestions concerning the school. Of course, in a large system there is bound to be an individual or two who will misinterpret the purpose of this, but, in general, if the faculty is made to regard it as a sincere desire for help, the principal will find this a very worth-while procedure.

A number of our office procedures, and even some of our school forms, have been changed through helpful suggestions obtained in this way. The way in which our senior class activities are organized is also the result of suggestions from teachers which were turned in at this time.

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CHAPTER VIII

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The philosophy of education for all, with adjustments that must be made by students and schools, makes a guidance program necessary. In addition to universal education, there is a concern in the schools of today for the total growth and development of our nation's children. A definite program for understanding the student as an individual is necessary with such a broad program for such a hetergeneous group. Administration and coordination of this program are often responsibilities of the principal. Even when a special guidance person is employed, the principal must work closely with the program and give administrative support.

Need for Educational Guidance[1]

A certain emotional instability is characteristic of youthful and adolescent interests. Students do not know themselves fully. Their purpose and plans are constantly changing to some extent. They need guidance to help them discover their possibilities and to aid them in distinguishing between real and passing interests. They need assistance in analyzing their needs and in choosing wisely from the curricular offerings.

Individual differences. Formerly, a highly selected group of pupils whose ultimate aim was a college education

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[1]J. B. Edmonson, J. Roemer, and F. L. Bacon, The Administration of the Modern Secondary School (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948), pp. 227-228.

attended high schools. Today, studies show how wide is the range of differences, especially in chronological and mental age, capacity, and social development, and how essential is guidance, if the high schools are to organize an effective program.

Many individual differences result from situations in the home and the variety of social backgrounds. Students today have many opportunities for out-of-school contacts and for experiences away from home. Consequently, many formerly uniform characteristics have changed.

School mortality. Students of lower mentality are going to high school in increasing numbers, and, because their school subjects are badly selected, school mortality is very high. At present, most of those who enter the first grade begin high school, but fewer than two-thirds of these continue until they are graduated. Courses are now being formulated for students of low intelligence and for the physically defective. Guidance of students into these courses should reduce school mortality.

Expansion of curriculums. The student has insufficient experience to know what his needs are in relation to the courses offered. The high school program of studies is an insoluble puzzle, for the courses and curriculums are seldom described except in technical language. In the large high school, there are generally at least two curriculums

offered, and in the small high school there are certain elective courses. Concerning all of these possible choices a student needs information. It is because of this complexity of courses and the student's limited understanding that real educational improvement may result through guidance.

Previous home and school experience. There are certain previous school experiences, maladjustments, and social and economic conditions within the home that make guidance imperative. Many students reach high school with physical or mental defects, such as poor reading habits, diseases, and physical disabilities. Sometimes these are not clearly defined, but will greatly affect schoolwork and later life. Emotional conditions and certain home factors, both economic and social, must be considered. Narrow vocational training may result from special abilities or interests if a student's choice is left entirely to him. Hence the need for guidance.

The Place of Guidance in the School Program[1]

The guidance activity includes at least the five fields of problems related to healthful living, education, social living, vocational direction, and ethics. So much emphasis has been placed upon vocational guidance in recent years that the other aspects of a comprehensive and vital guidance program have been subordinated and at times even

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[1]Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940), pp. 346-347.

lost sight of. In its widest aspects guidance deals with the totality of problems arising from the complete educational process, thought of as the development of the physical, mental, social, emotional and spiritual aspects of personality.

PROBLEMS

The problems of guidance are so closely interwoven with the instructional activity that it is difficult to separate them from the instructional pattern without subordinating and neglecting some aspects. From one point of view the entire educational process is a guidance activity. The fundamental nature of guidance and its intimate relation to everything that goes on within the home, the classroom, the social centers and the playground should not be lost sight of in current discussions. The problems involved in this many-faceted activity are essentially those of giving information, advice, stimulation, and direction of learning in all of its aspects. Guidance as an institutional problem, supplementing the home, starts in the elementary school where up to the present time it has been largely neglected, and continues through the institutional life of the student.

Work done. The most valuable work in guidance is accomplished when the teacher permeates formal instruction with guidance concepts, when informal instruction or activities are provided in the total school pattern, and parti-

cularly when the homeroom gives social direction and develops self-governing competence. Much of the work is apparently indirect and consists of the incorporation of guidance requirements in every curricular division. In one respect it is similar to the development of character education. Much of its most important work must be accomplished through direct reaching while other phases may grow out of individual counseling conferences. If the guidance activity is too obvious or too formalized it may lose much of its value. It thrives best in the atmosphere of friendliness and confidence growing out of the intimate social relations of teacher and child.

Although greatly emphasized in its vocational aspects since 1917, the guidance activity is by no means new. It has been an unrecognized but active part of the teaching process since time immemorial.

Its major work consists in giving to the children wholesome information concerning biological and social living, of aiding the child to understand himself and his potentialities, of instructing him about the nature of the culture in which he lives and his relationship to it, of pointing out the possibilities of vocational opportunities and the means of satisfying his economic desires, and of helping him to determine the ends for which he should live. Only in a very narrow and mechanical sense can guidance be considered as primarily vocational. Specific vocational guidance is merely

the last phase necessary to complete the activity.

In all guidance extreme care must be exercised to recognize the inevitability of change and to guard against the acceptance of a too narrow concept of educational activity. The inculcation of concepts of social stratification and cultural inflexibility growing out of individual narrowness must be carefully avoided.

Personnel. From the functional standpoint the teacher always has been and will remain the chief agent in the guidance activity. Since it is so closely integrated with everything accomplished in instruction, guidance should be considered not as an independent staff activity but as a part of the total instructional activity or the curriculum. In addition to the teacher, there will always be a need for staff specialists, just as there is in other fields of the curriculum. These specialists would be, under ideal conditions, in health, mental, social, emotional, and ethical areas or, expressed in curricular terms, in health, expression, social studies, science, fine arts and vocational education. There is also some need for a general specialist whose breadth of training and understanding of cultural processes could make possible a sensible integration of all these specialized points of view. Regardless of specialization, guidance should never be isolated from instruction.

Guidance Made Necessary by Changed Conditions in Society and in School[1]

Fundamental alterations in our social and economic structure have given rise to the guidance movement just as they have also given rise to remarkable changes in school aims, curriculum, and equipment. Society has assumed a complexity which imposes ever larger burdens on the school as an agency preparing individuals to take their places in the existing social order. Helping young people to make a proper choice of lifework has of necessity become a social function because of the greatly widened range of opportunities and the increased difficulty of seeing them. In an agricultural society, occupational life is inseparably bound up with the home; the child views it and experiences it without the aid of any other social agency. This simple relationship has now disappeared for the majority of American children, and it must be compensated for by the erection of another device in the social structure, however artificial it may be.

Within the school the broadening of the curriculum may be mentioned as a first factor which calls for the exercise of guidance. Instead of one narrow path, a network of interlacing highways confront the present secondary-school pupil in a modern school. Numerous forked-road situations call for his decision. The varied curriculum oppor-

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[1]L. V. Koos, et al., Administering the Secondary School (New York: American Book Company, 1940), pp. 178-180.

tunities are intended to serve the varied needs, abilities, and purposes of the pupils. Attainment of this laudable end depends on an adequate program for aiding the individual pupil in his selection from the curriculum offering. A second factor is the heterogeneous character of the present population of our secondary schools. The effectual placing of the diverse individuals comprising present enrollments, in relation to educational opportunities, and later in relation to vocational opportunities, is a challenge which calls for techniques and training distinct from those employed in pupil development.

Complexity of school organization is a third factor which necessitates a guidance program. With increasing size, the schools have assumed many of the aspects which characterize large business and industrial organizations--each worker (teacher) a specialist and the pupils moving along corridors, as on a conveying belt, from specialist to specialist. Instead of making many and intimate contacts with a few pupils, the specialist makes a limited contact with many pupils--perhaps 200 for academic teachers and often much larger numbers for teachers of non-academic subjects.[1] Such a factory-like division of labor and such mass-production methods cause a tendency to focus educational energy on sub-

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[1]P. W. Hutson, "A Neglected Factor in the Teaching Load," School Review, XL (March, 1932), 192-203.

jects rather than on the pupil. Intimate contact between teacher and pupil is lost. This peril of complex school organization we have come to speak of as "depersonalization." To combat it we have erected compensating features designed to diagnose the pupil and to coordinate and direct the work of the specialists for the individual pupil's advantage. We have designated someone to envisage the whole pupil and to be responsible for his well-rounded development. These features merit classification as guidance.

Organization and Administration of Guidance[1]

In organizing and administering the guidance program provision must be made for meeting the totality of problems that arise from the complete educational process. These problems cover the fields of healthful living, education, social living, vocational direction, and ethical conduct. They are sometimes referred to as the physical, mental, social, emotional, and spiritual aspects of personality. All of these problems are interwoven with the instructional process and cannot be disassociated from it without neglecting or subordinating them. This does not meant that specialized services is evident. The teacher, however, must remain the most important professional agent in the administration of the guidance program.

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[1]Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, The Teacher and School Organization (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), pp. 381-382.

The principal likewise has an important role in the organization and administration of guidance. Being responsible to the superintendent for the success or failure of the program, he acts as the coordinator of all that is done and the administrator of special services which he delegates to highly trained personnel. He may delegate authority for various phases of guidance to the assistant principal, department heads, deans, class advisers, counselors, visiting teachers, psychologists, and psychiatrists.

A simplified pattern of organization for guidance purposes places the major work with the classroom teacher, the central responsibility for each pupil with the homeroom or core teacher, special case studies with the counselor, and coordinate informational service with the visiting teacher. Supplementary personnel may be added as they are required by the needs of particular school situations.

Self-Measurement for Group Guidance[1]

Why not permit the pupil to measure himself, with the assistance of the teacher? People naturally wish to measure their height, weight, growth, and special abilities or achievements. This desire is a basic element in many sports, such as golf, track events, and other competitions of various

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[1]Richard D. Allen, Self-Measurement Projects in Group Guidance (New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1938), pp. 8-9.

kinds. Such a plan requires only that procedures be devised which will remove all motives for cheating and relieve pupils from embarrassment concerning the results. Testing is not necessarily guidance, but it may be used for guidance purposes to help pupils to know and understand themselves.

The most essential elements in obtaining the full value of tests for the purpose of guidance are as follows:

1. The pupil should be made a partner in the project.
2. Tests should be carefully selected and lessons carefully planned and prepared for the use of counselors.
3. Helps for class motivation should be provided.
4. No one except the pupil himself should know his score. This relieves him of all embarrassment and of motive for cheating.
5. Each pupil should know his own ranking and be able to compare himself objectively with the class, the grade, other grades, and other groups, but without embarrassment or emotional disturbance.
6. Pupils should not be left alone at this point. The meanings of typical scores should be discussed by the class under the direction of a skilled counselor.
7. Remedial measures should be suggested for individuals and for groups, and the possibilities of improvement should be stressed.
8. Finally, pupils should be invited to discuss troublesome problems with the counselor, and to lay the basis of a cumulative record by depositing their scores and names in a sealed envelope for future reference.

Recently a distinguished scientist defined education as "a service provided to help each individual to overcome

his own limitation." This is an unusually challenging statement. Naturally the first step in the process would be to help each student to know the nature and extent of his own limitations. This is not a matter of opinion but of objective measurement in which the pupil participates. The self-measurement projects accomplish this purpose and do so without embarrassment or humiliation. Moreover, they provide an opportunity to know not only the facts, but also their possible and probably implications. Such discussion naturally motivates education and arouses interest in securing information concerning available educational opportunities both in the school and in the community. It provides an occasion for guidance.

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CHAPTER IX

TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

An understanding of the students for whom a school is built seems to be essential in a realistic program. A knowledge of the mental abilities and aptitudes of the students is a foundation upon which child growth and direction should be based. Tests and testing principles are mentioned below to provide basis for a good testing program.

Importance of a Testing Program[1]

Scientifically devised tests and statistical techniques have made possible the principal's supervision by means of a testing program. When a testing program is thoroughly planned and carefully executed, it contributes in practical ways to children's development because it applies precise measurement to achievement. Cooperation in the program by teachers and principal makes possible rapid analysis and diagnosis in many phases of child development. This cooperation also makes possible intensive study of the conditions affecting pupils' progress.

Hence the introduction of a testing program places upon the principal the responsibilities of (1) supervising the teachers in the selection of satisfactory tests, (2)

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[1]George C. Kyte, The Principal at Work (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1941), pp. 331, 335.

supervising the teachers in the use of these tests, (3) assisting the teachers in the construction of informal tests, and (4) utilizing the obtained data in improving his own efficiency. As the principal helps teachers to improve their instructional procedures, he also supervises them in their use of tests and of statistical methods. He takes into account each teacher's previous training in the various phases of tests and measurements. He analyzes her practical experiences in administering tests and utilizing the resulting data.

Various research studies regarding the problems and difficulties confronting teachers disclose the important roles which a testing program should play in teaching and in supervision. The most common problems of instruction include (1) dealing with variations in ability of children in the same classroom; (2) keeping every child profitably busy in his schoolwork; (3) meeting the needs of bright pupils; (4) dealing with subnormal, slow, and retarded children; and (5) locating the causes of various differences in development.

The Administrator's Responsibility for Measurement[1]

Measurement is a direct administrative problem. The majority of schools cannot provide a test director, and it

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[1]W. I. Painter and H. W. Painter, "The Administrator's Responsibility for Measurement," American School Board Journal, CXI (November, 1945), 37.

usually falls to the administrator to sponsor intelligence and achievement testing within the school. He is largely responsible for the success of testing: the philosophy involved, the tests given, and the use made of results. It is of importance that principals and superintendents have a clear understanding of principles and procedures necessary for an effective measurement program.

Administrators seem to fall into one of three classifications with respect to measurement. As with a disease, the epidemic strikes some heavily, passes over others lightly, and misses some entirely. Thus we find administrators who have such enthusiasm for testing that a vast number of tests is given, with the result that children and teachers are worn out by frequent repetition and there is insufficient time to make use of the results. Other administrators, who have learned that measurement is a progressive method and who want to be thought progressive, have tests given but never scored or used. And then there is the administrator who does not believe in tests and will have nothing to do with them.

Each of these positions is erroneous. Measurement as a procedure has suffered more from the unwise use of test results than from any other cause, but to test and not to use the results is also a common error. The school whose administrator has no sympathy for objective examinations

does less harm to its pupils than the school which follows either of the other two procedures. Measurement wisely understood in philosophy and practice can be of inestimable service. Administrators should have an accurate, well-defined concept of it.

An Underlying Philosophy. Any philosophy of testing centers about the teacher and the child. The child is really the central point of any educational planning, but the success of the program is influenced largely by the attitude taken toward the teacher and by the teacher. Testing should not be an administrative means by which to judge teachers. This theory is basic and upon it full cooperation of the staff may hinge. Since measurement first began to assume importance in school systems, educators have warned against the use of testing to promote, retard, or dismiss teachers. It has been urged that tests be used to improve instruction and not as measures for or against the individual instructing, though such a goal is difficult. The administrator who, from the beginning, takes this stand and clarifies his position regarding it has laid a strong foundation for cooperation between himself and his staff, which is conducive to a good program.

The Principal and the Testing Program[1]

Testing is of such growing importance and usefulness that principals should become skillful in administering tests. Much waste of time and misinformation have arisen from ignorant or careless testing. It is the first business of a principal to see that he or whoever uses tests knows what he is about. It is imperative now that principals know at least the rudiments of statistical treatment of data derived from tests and other sources, and know how to interpret results and prescribe follow-up methods. It is much better to use a simple test that one is sure of administering correctly than one that requires much training and experience to give properly. A group intelligence test that requires few instructions and is simply socred will be more accurate than a Binet-Simon individual test given by an amateur. Principals must not assume that anyone can score tests. Tests should never be given indiscriminately to teachers to score without careful instruction, and even then they should be checked. Finally, the results should be filed away, preferably on the pupils' permanent record, and thus made available for guidance work. The teachers should be instructed in the use that may be made of test results.

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[1]M. E. Morgan and E. C. Cline, Systematizing the Work of School Principals (New York: Professional and Technical Press, 1930), pp. 276-277.

A testing program should be worked out with definite aims. Group intelligence tests may be given all pupils; a reading test may be given all pupils; a reading test may be given occasionally to check up on the need for remedial teaching, or on the relationship between failure and reading ability; special achievement tests may be given to evaluate results in the light of national forms. It is easy to see the use of tests as an inspectorial aid.

A testing program will mean more than the purchase and use of commercial tests. The principal should be a leader in setting up modern testing procedure throughout the whole school. Tests should be worked out for units, courses, departments, and standardized locally. These may be compared with nationally standardized tests from time to time, to establish their validity. The contention in this and succeeding sections is that any principal in any school may have all the satisfaction and pleasure there is in experimental education, if he simply starts to work in the laboratory, which is his school. His experiment may not lead to a Ph. D. thesis, but it may do his school a great deal more good.

Planning the Evaluation Program[1]

A school should have a continuous program of evaluation in progress. This program should involve the constant

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[1]J. M. Lee and D. M. Lee, The Child and His Curriculum (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940), pp. 620-622.

accumulation of evidence of the extent to which individuals are showing development in the attainment of the objectives of the school. The evidence may be in terms of test results, of work which the pupil has accomplished, and of observations and descriptions of behavior as recorded by the teachers.

One of the first considerations in an evaluation program is to be sure that the measures are to be used. A common difficulty is that schools give a lot of tests and then never make use of the results. This difficulty can be overcome if the measures of tests are selected in terms of the uses which are to be made of the results.

The second important consideration is to be certain that results are used for the improvement of instruction. Too often a testing program does more damage than good. Compare the effects of two types of testing programs. In one case, tests of facts and skills were given at the end of the year by a state department of education. In the other case tests of skills were given at the beginning of the year, and were selected by the local school authorities. The first procedure resulted in cramming by the pupils and in much cheating on the part of teachers. In the system that gave tests at the beginning of the year, the teachers were vitally interested in analyzing the needs of each pupil. There was no feeling that the teacher was being judged; the attention of every one was focused upon the needs of the child. Other

improper uses of tests include the practice of marking only on the basis of test results, of promoting only on the basis of test results, of using one or two measures to diagnose a pupil, and of rating teachers on the test results of their pupils.

The third essential is to be sure that the implications of the results are understood and that the necessary follow-up work is done. Many of the school research departments in large cities are doing an excellent job in this regard. Most of the responsibility, however, must be carried by the principal and the teacher working together. There are a number of devices for facilitating follow-up work, such as forms for reporting the results of such work to the principal, the listing of pupils who are very poor in achievement, individual conferences with teachers, reports on remedial procedures used, and retesting to determine growth. Some devices are effective in some schools, and some in others.

As just indicated, the effectiveness of any evaluation program depends upon cooperation between principal and teacher. They must make sure that (1) the uses of the evaluation instruments are carefully planned; (2) the measurements selected will furnish information which can be used to improve the learning of children; (3) they are given at the proper time; and (4) an adequate program of follow-up work is carried on.

A Basic High-School Testing Program[1]

In a general statement on the value of tests and testing programs, Jacobson and Reavis, in their new books, Duties of School Principals, point out that:

> Testing has passed out of the realm of the mysterious in which it was once placed by conservative educators. It has made lasting contributions to education at all levels and is recognized in many schools as an integral and indispensable part of the educational process.[2]

It takes time, work, and study to develop a good testing program. Teachers and administrators must be informed and prepared as to its merits, advantages, uses, and limitations. Many teachers and administrators should take more work or special courses in measurements, or attend workshops, where professional experts come to teach and assist with problems of organization and administration. First of all, tests and a program must be sold.

It takes cooperation to develop a good testing program. Certainly the program cannot suddenly be forced upon the high school "because we ought to do some testing here." Teachers, parents, and students must be made aware of the

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[1]Walter F. Froch, "A Basic High-School Testing Program," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXIII (October, 1949), 75-80.

[2]Paul B. Jacobson, and William C. Reavis, Duties of School Principals (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946), p. 595.

value of tests and must realize that they are helpful modern instruments for bringing about student adjustments in school and in later life. There should be continual cooperation among teachers in the use of tests and their results and in their interpretation.

To the teacher, test results will be of aid in individualizing her instruction. She will know that one student is not working up to capacity and needs more challenging work, and that another pupil cannot do quite so much and needs special help. She will get a clear indication of the relative quality of her instruction when achievement tests are given. Whether a teacher attempts to give guidance services or whether there is a special counselor or director of this, a knowledge of student aptitudes, interests, and personality characteristics will help every teacher to know her students better and to understand their strengths and weaknesses, and their aims. We are teaching the whole child; we will need to know the whole child.

To the administrator, the testing program will provide an objective evaluation of his school. Are the classes at a reasonable standard of academic achievement? Is the curriculum doing the thing it is supposed to do, or are there areas which need more attention? Is there a need for more emphasis on social development or is it scholastic achievement that needs attention? Even the morale of the school

can be judged from tests.

The Educational Policies Commission in its recent report The Purpose of Education in American Democracy states:

The center of emphasis in education is being shifted from the program of studies to the individual learner. There is a closer concern with the major strategy of the classroom as opposed to the minor tactics of subject-matter arrangement. We are beginning to study each child as a unitary, unique individual and to offer guidance, in an intelligent and sympathetic way, to each one in accordance with his need.[1]

It takes a professional attitude to develop a good testing program. Unprofessional handling of the program will prevent the realization of full benefits from one of the most encouraging aids yet devised by which our school can really educate for successful living. A committee of distinguished educators, headed by President Conant of Harvard University, reports further that testing as an educational aid is in its infancy. Tests of one's knowledge, however accurate, throw no light on one's sense of values.

WHAT TO LOOK FOR IN TESTS

There are several questions about tests which the

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[1] The Purpose of Education in American Democracy, Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. (Washington: The Commission, 1945).

teacher, principal, or superintendent will want to take into account in selecting the best possible instruments for the school. (1) Was the test well standardized; that is, are the norms based on sufficient number of cases and on cases sufficiently representative? (2) Is the test reliable; that is, can you count on it and its parts to measure accurately and consistently? (3) Does the test have high validity; that is, does it really measure what it is supposed to be measuring? (4) Is the test easy to score, not too long to administer conveniently, and not too expensive in price? Relative to the cost of providing a basic testing program, an authority states:

> A fifteen cent per pupil test budget provides a satisfactory basic program. When the per pupil cost of the educational program ($80 to $200 per pupil) is considered, the cost of obtaining these essential basic data for one's appraisal, educational diagnosis, and pupil guidance is really insignificant.[1]

THE PURPOSE OF THE TESTING PROGRAM

Today the emphasis in education is being shifted from the curriculum to the student. This is more and more becoming the trend of good teaching. If teachers are to work more with young people individually, they need to know the

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[1] Educational Bulletin No. 6, California Test Bureau (Los Angeles: The Bureau, 1944).

strong and weak points of their students. In the past, teachers depended on most unreliable methods for judging certain traits; height of forehead was thought to be indicative of intelligence; long, tapering fingers showed an aptitude for painting, typing, or music; steady gaze proclaimed an honest, well-adjusted personality. Today, however, use of standardized tests helps us make far more accurate judgments of abilities and aptitudes than those guesswork methods of the past.

We are going to make judgments of a student whether we use tests or not; of his resourcefulness, his stick-to-itiveness, his proficiency in a subject, and his general mental ability. Observation is still a good method for making judgments in some areas, but, in those aspects or behavior which can now be measured by tests, is the teacher not much more wise to get all the help she can from objective instruments rather than to depend upon personal evaluation?

When we give a test, we simply provide a standardized observational situation for a given sample of behavior. The real purpose of testing is not to classify a student as passing or failing, but rather to point out areas needing special attention or additional emphasis. The standardized test enables the teacher to compare the individual's level of performance with that of others of the same age or grade. It is merely shown that he can do a certain thing better than a large proportion--or a small proportion--of people like himself.

Thus, when we say he is in the 90th percentile, we mean that his performance was better than 90 percent of other students at his level. A testing authority says: "The ultimate objective of the program is the final improvement of instruction and the guidance of individual pupils."[1] Another use listed by Jacobson and Reavis: "Tests and their results offer a concrete basis for the consideration of curriculum construction, revision, and supervision. Testing is also a part of supervision, though admittedly not the most important part."[2] It can be summed up by saying, the real purpose of a testing program is to help the schools provide better education.

KINDS OF TESTS

Three ways in which tests are frequently classified are: (1) type of equipment needed, (2) time-limit of work-limit conditions of administration, and (3) type of behavior being measured. In terms of equipment needed there are two broad kinds of tests: paper-and-pencil tests, useful for group administration; and tests requiring individual administration. Time-limit tests are tests in which the student does as much work as he can in a certain length of time; while in work-limit tests, the student is to work until he

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[1]Educational Bulletin No. 3, California Test Bureau (Los Angeles: The Bureau, 1944).

[2]Jacobson and Reavis, op. cit., p. 634.

has finished or can go no farther. Types of behavior being measured include: general scholastic ability (intelligence), subject-matter achievement, special aptitudes, vocational interests, and personality. There are also diagnostic and other specialized types of tests.

Tests for General Scholastic Ability.--Tests of intelligence (in practice, really the ability to do school work) in the last decade have found their way into most schools. There are scores of different scholastic ability tests on the market. Results are given in terms of either the I. Q. (100 times the mental age, as shown by the test, divided by the student's actual chronological age), or the percentile rank (the student's position in relation to 100 percent of the population of his level). Mental ages and grade equivalents are sometimes given.

The best known mental ability test is probably the Revised Stanford-Binet. Its results are given in terms of the I. Q.; its only drawback for large groups is that it must be administered individually. Among paper-and-pencil tests are the American Council on Education's Psychological Examination for High-School Students, the Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability, and Thurstone's Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities. The latter is noteworthy in that it gives scores in six different kinds of mental ability--number ability, ability to see verbal meaning,

ability to see spatial relations, ability to use words, ability to reason, and memory.

Tests of Sub-Matter Achievement.--Like final examinations of the objective type familiar to all of us, achievement tests measure students' strengths in the various areas of school work. By giving batteries of achievement tests, administrators and teachers can see how well their students are doing in various areas of the curriculum as compared with those in other schools throughout the country. Well known achievement tests are: Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basis Skills; Metropolitan Achievement Tests; Stanford Achievement Tests; and the Co-operative Achievement Tests.

Tests for Special Aptitudes.--While tests builders are beginning to construct instruments to measure aptitude for work in art, music, science, social service, and so on, the average school will probably find it more practicable at first to measure only clerical and mechanical ability or aptitudes. Measures in these areas will help indicate which course of study is best for a student to follow in high school. But what are aptitudes? John R. Yale, in his recent book, states:

Aptitudes may be narrowly defined as potentialities which can be developed into special skills useful in later job adjustments. While high scores on achievement tests usually can be rightly said to indicate high aptitude in those tests,

or areas the tests cover; it is often advisable to get measures of the aptitude directly.[1]

A good general clerical aptitude test is The Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers; the National Office Managers Association's Stenographic Aptitude Test gives reliable prediction of a student's aptitude for learning shorthand in a high-school shorthand class. As mechanical aptitude tests, the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test and the Stenquist Mechanical Aptitude Test are probably most widely known.

Tests for Vocational Interests.--Interest tests, of which the Kuder Preference Record and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank are popular examples, try to point out the field or fields of work toward which the student has the greatest "natural" tendency or inclination. While at early ages interests of students change frequently, it seems that interests tend to be fairly well-established by the age of sixteen. Interest tests do little to help the student to pick a specific occupation; their purpose rather is to help him establish the general field of work toward which he is most inclined, and, thus, the course of study best for him to follow through his high-school program.

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[1]John R. Yale, Tests and Their Place in High School (Chicago: Science Research Association, 1944), p. 181.

Personality Tests.--While great confusion exists in the area of personality and its measurement and results of personality tests must be used tentatively at best, personality tests, if answered franklin and truthfully by the student, are still more reliable than personal judgment. Two reasons for giving personality tests are: we must identify the seriously maladjusted pupil as early as possible, and we must make some attempt to determine the appropriateness of the student's personality for the broad job or occupational field into which he may plan to go. Personality tests are Bell's Adjustment Inventory; The Personal Audit by Adams and Lepley; and The Personality Inventory by Bernreuter.

CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

Although testing has not been used extensively for supervisory purposes, tests are used widely. This article lists some of the uses, some of the purposes and objectives of the basic high-school testing program. Some of the better tests in the different areas of testing have been recorded. These could become the basic of initial step in a testing program. The following statement appearing in Jacobson and Reavis's book and credited to the American Educational Research Association sums it up very well:

Testing procedures are now a matter of course in the attack on educational problems everywhere. Twenty years ago, tests were novelties--technics of investigation consisted

largely of the compilation of opinions. Today the use of educational tests has become almost as commonplace as that of textbooks. In the more progressive schools, teachers utilize various forms of educational tests regularly and continuously.[1]

No high-school testing program, such as outlined, can spring forth fully developed. Instead, the school will find it most advisable to go ahead with one part of the program at a time. As tests are understood, their value appreciated, and their results put to use, the school can begin still another phase or step in the program of testing.

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[1]Jacobson and Reavis, op. cit., p. 597.

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CHAPTER X

ORGANIZATION FOR STUDENT PARTICIPATION

Education in a democracy should be based upon democratic principles. Active membership and participation in school groups provides opportunities to develop and practice the rights and duties of a citizen in these groups. In providing learning experiences for citizens in a democracy, the principal should not replace faculty autonomy with student autonomy. Rather school organization should allow students to practice management and direction of their affairs with recommendations and counseling from the faculty. By living democratically, one becomes an effective, responsible, democratic citizen.

Values and Aims of Student Participation[1]

Student participation is based on the theory that citizenship in a smaller or larger group of society necessitates ideals and knowledge combined in action. The strongest argument for student participation is that it produces a higher type of citizenship by providing the students with an opportunity to follow the democratic principles laid down by the school. They become impressed by the similarity of school experience and life experience.

Citizenship. Participation in an attempt to solve

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[1]J. B. Edmonson, J. Roemer, and F. L. Bacon, The Administration of the Modern Secondary School (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948), pp. 215-216.

local and vital problems, as a part of the school's government and under wise leadership and supervision, will do much toward helping the students to interest themselves in desirable activities. The transfer from school to life is more likely to be successful if the conditions in the school are similar to desirable conditions outside of the school. The elements required for good citizenship in school are like the elements of good citizenship required in the community at large. Student participation brings with it a realization of membership in a society with its duties and privileges. It helps to develop the ideals of fair play and unselfish service and makes students more thoughtful and considerate of the rights of others. Student cooperation should develop the individual into an intelligent, well-rounded, public-spirited citizen by leading him to a realization of his personal responsibilities. He must be so much taken up with the spirit of public service that he will willingly subordinate self to the interests of the group.

Socialization and morale. The second value that is to arise from student participation is the improved moral tone of the school and a better socialized atmosphere. The students feel that they have a part in the school and do not feel like slaves who have to "walk the chalk line" without having any voice as to where the line should be placed. In studies of participation, schools have consistently reported that a

greater degree of loyalty is cultivated and there is evidence of the development of self-confidence and self-assertion on the part of the students.

Discipline. Another important value is the influence of cooperative control on the conduct of the students, to say nothing of the valuable part it plays in school spirit and loyalty. The teachers and principal cannot sit back and free their hands of the problem of discipline, but cooperative control will help greatly. It is not advisable to try to solve a bad disciplinary situation with student help, but in an average or better than average school cooperative control should achieve a great improvement in discipline.

Leadership. Leaders are needed in every phase of life, and there is no place where better leadership training may be secured than in the school. In student participation, there is the best chance to pick out those who have the qualities of leaders and give them practice and training in this field. Not only will these leaders be trained, but those who have the qualities of good followers will have training to do their bit. It gives the students a chance to do some reflective thinking and a chance to act upon their conclusions.

Further outcomes. Some other values of student participation in school control are:

1. It utilizes the moral and ethical aims of education.
2. It secures better cooperation between the home and the school.

3. It makes provision for a more intelligent majority rule.
4. It aids in interpreting and molding school opinion.
5. It is a true project method for securing a broad and rich educational experience.
6. It offers an ideal means of unifying the life of the school.

Pupil Participation in Administration[1]

In a democracy such as ours it is infinitely more important that the schools develop individuals who possess the attributes of good citizenship--self-control, initiative, responsibility, self-reliance and self-dependence combined with the ability to cooperate and work with others, capacity for open-minded evaluation of facts and procedures and the resultant formation of an unbiased opinion and course of action, and an appreciation for and an understanding of the "other fellow's" problem--than it is to produce encyclopedic automatons who attempt to lead for self-glorification or follow the leader no matter how inadequate he may be. Such intangible qualities cannot be imposed upon the pupil from without, nor is it reasonable to presume that they are inherent and will automatically appear in adult life when the need for them arises; but rather, they are the result of a gradual

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[1] N. W. Newsom and R. E. Langfitt (eds.), Administrative Practices in Large High Schools (New York: American Book Company, 1940), pp. 19-20.

growth and unfolding within the pupil and can best be developed through repeated exercise in their application. Therefore, it is the duty of the school to provide situations in which the pupil will have the opportunity, as an individual and as a member of the social group, to engage in those activities which develop the fundamental qualities for successful living in a democracy.

The educational precept that we learn by doing is the basic principle underlying the theory of pupil participation, whether it be in relation to school government, the curriculum, or in other matters pertaining to the school. This does not mean that the pupil shall be given free rein to do as he pleases and to follow each whim and fancy, but that, under the expert guidance of his teachers, he shall be allowed to participate in those experiences which are most real and vital to him and to those about him. Pupil participation is an educative process which must develop gradually, in keeping with the pupils' experiences and interests.

Pupil Participation in Policy Formation[1]

Now let us look at the criterion of democracy as applied to pupils. Obviously, as pupils grow older they attain higher intellectual maturity and a higher cultural level. They do not necessarily attain much in the way of professional

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[1]Paul R. Mort, Principles of School Administration (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946), p. 108.

competence in education. The realm in which their competence is to be considered in the formulation of policy affecting them, while ever-widening, may therefore be considered fairly narrow as compared with the realm of the teacher. To the extent, however, that their competence makes possible participation in the formulation of policy, and to the extent that they can be led to see that in participation there is a responsibility as well as an opportunity--to that degree are we treating them democratically. Here, as elsewhere, therefore, we should set the realm of participation somewhat beyond the bounds of certainty with respect to competence, on the assumption that we will tend to underrate their ability to participate because of their immaturity.

It should be understood that this is not a proposal for training in democracy. Rather it is a discussion of the recognition of pupils as persons involved and worthy of consideration in their own right. The writer believes that the orientation to democracy, in general, and to political democracy, in particular. . . ., have important implications for the development of a generation that will find democratic living easier than our generation finds it.

Subcouncils Increase Participation[1]

One school, after several years of experimentation, developed an organization which was truly functional. It was realized that the Student Council of thirty members was giving experience to only a small fraction of 500 pupils. Furthermore, in a school of that size there were numerous responsibilities that pupils could accept with more profit than the teachers. It was found that those small matters that are thorns in every principal's existence and that are usually left untouched because of lack of time could be assigned to student committees. Soon many sub-councils were in action, with more than three-fifths of the student body serving on them and voluntarily remaining after school for forty-five minutes once a week to do so. Each of these subcouncils was justified only by its need. Whenever a phase of school organization necessitated ~~continuous~~ planning, discussion, and administration, a subcouncil was formed which:

1. Planned creatively for its own particular phase of school organization.
2. Reported weekly to the Student Council and to any class or advisory (homeroom) of which it might be representative.
3. Was a tangible body to which all matters concerning that definite phase of activity might be referred.

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[1]G. R. Koopman, A. Miel, and P. J. Misner, Democracy in School Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943), pp. 235-237.

The need for a subcouncil might be first recognized by either students or faculty members.

Each small council had a faculty adviser, several of whom served on the faculty committee concerned with student affairs (the Curriculum-Activities Committee). Members of the Student Council took the chairmanships of the subcouncils in order that there might be direct reporting to the Council and that close relationship with the Council might be maintained.

An attempt was made to use good techniques of group discussion both in the subcouncil meetings and in the sessions of the Student Council. Care was taken to coordinate the planning done by the students with that done by the faculty in a cooperative and democratic way. There was no complaint that the teachers were "running things." Never in the history of the school had greater interest and pride been shown in all that the school was doing. Lessons learned from revising the constitution of the student league and working out the by-laws of the school, as well as from conducting the semiannual elections, were invaluable lessons in the mechanical aspects of citizenship.

All subcouncils met at the same time in order that no pupil might belong to more than one council. Thus participation was spread. The councils were representative of homerooms, social-studies classes, English classes, and integration classes, or consisted of volunteer membership as the activity demanded.

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CHAPTER XI

GRADING AND PROMOTION

Much discussion has been offered in this area in recent years. By the fact that there has been concern on this matter, it would indicate that current practices might well be evaluated in terms of current educational objectives. The following articles and readings provide some basis for study of grading and promotional practices.

Marking and Reporting Progress[1]

An educational speaker is said to have remarked, "The school with its formal lifeless curriculum and its poor teaching methods has gotten into such a fix that a marking system had to be invented to make pupils work." This may have been an attempt at humor but it is not entirely humorous; a partial truth is too closely approximated for comfort. Whatever their exact origin, marks are too commonly used as extraneous motivations, either as rewards or as punishments. Threats based on marks are too common in many schools.

The problem of determining the pupil's mark or index of achievement brings into sharp relief again the two theories of education and of learning which have been contrasted

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[1]William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities, (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1944), pp. 479-480.

throughout this volume. One theory sees education as the mastery of designated segments of subject matter. The segments are arranged in a series of grade levels. Marks are assigned largely on the basis of teacher judgment as to how well the materials have been retained. The other theory sees education as the progressive development of the personal-social-moral traits, understandings, abilities, etc., of the learner. Marks, if given at all, are usually accompanied by descriptions of the pupil's actual achievement of functional learning outcomes. The logical outcome of this theory is to abandon marks and to substitute therefor descriptions of actual learning products and progress. Earlier chapters have discussed in some detail the serious detriment to education and to learning which results from substitution of a mark or symbol for true learning. Marks will be used, however, for a long time yet in traditional schools. Teachers need to know how to operate a fundamentally unsound device as sensibly as possible.

Promotion or Non-Promotion[1]

Faculty study of the problem of non-promotion and retardation is a much more rational method of solving the problem than is administrative order. Unless the teachers who have

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[1]P. B. Jacobson, and W. C. Reavis, Duties of School Principals (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942), pp. 455-456.

been using failure as a part of their teaching technique are brought to a realization of the problems, and as a result of discussion and study are prepared for a transition, there will be little improvement in educational result. Because failure is closely connected with non-attendance, whether for illness or other reasons, it is unlikely that failure will be eliminated entirely from the schools. The trend toward a reduction of failure which began earlier in the century may be expected to continue. Perhaps it is not inappropriate to mention that adequate and complete records for every pupil kept up to date on a cumulative form are essential in the successful study of the problems of promotion and retardation and of the whole problem of classification. Some of the items which the cumulative record should contain are pedagogical history, health record, personal and family history, mental ability, social development, special abilities, and extracurriculum record. These data furnish adequate material for the studies proposed. From time to time the principal may wish to test the classification of the entire enrollment in the school by means of age-grade and grade-progress studies which should be made on the basis of serious study by the entire faculty.

Effective Marking and Reporting[1]

Many schools can solve their report card problems by the following methods, according to J. N. Vonckx, principal of the McKinley School in Normandy, Missouri, writing for The National Elementary Principal. Those suggested are:

1. Reduce the number of report periods from one a month to four or even two times a year. (Usually this plan is supplemented by letters to the parent or personal conferences).
2. Discourage comparisons between pupils by substitution of a two or three step rating for the old number or letter grade, such as S--satisfactory and U--unsatisfactory.
3. Judge and report a pupil's achievement in the light of his capacity to learn and not in comparison with other members of his class.
4. Include desirable personal traits and their growth in the scholastic achievement record.
5. Include statements showing the child's fields of strength so that he may feel that he is making progress each period.

Study of Relation of Marks to Promotion[2]

In nearly all schools studied the passing mark means promotion. In the last analysis it is the teachers who usually decide who shall pass and who shall fail, although often they are required to consult with others before awarding a failing mark, or to make a written report before

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[1]"Let's Have More Effective Report Cards!" School Management, XVIII (August, 1948), 20.

[2]Roy O. Billett, Provisions for Individual Differences: Marking and Promotion, National Survey of Secondary Education, Bulletin No. 17, 1932, Monograph No. 13. (Washington: United States Printing Office, 1933.), pp. 471-472.

strenuous efforts have been made to help him to bring his work up to a standard which merits promotion. Practically all schools report cooperative efforts of the pupil, parents, teachers, and supervisors to prevent failure. From half to three-fourths of the respondents state that the passing and failing marks are influenced by the pupil's effort, attendance, age, ability, handicaps, and the probably effect of promotion or non-promotion upon his future success. Eight other factors are mentioned. The typical mark accepted for credit in a subject is the same as the typical average mark required for graduation. But the typical average mark required for recommendation to college is 10 percent higher than the mark required for credit or for graduation. Trial promotions are employed in more than half of these schools. About 2 percent of the total enrollment are so promoted and about 30 percent succeed with the advanced work. Only one school is awarding credit for quality. The individual subject is the subject-matter unit of promotion in 85 percent of the schools. Promotions are made each semester in the larger schools and each year in the smaller schools. Promotions are made each semester in the larger schools and each year in the smaller schools. Promotion becomes a problem with only a small percentage of pupils and each case is treated individually. Rigid rules regarding promotion are nonexistent and incompatible with the principles governing

promotion in these schools. A small percentage of schools are awarding "certificates of completion" or "certificates of attendance" to pupils who can not meet the requirements for the regular diploma.

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CHAPTER XII

ATTENDANCE PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURES

Well-coordinated attendance procedures should constitute a part of every good administrative set-up. The attendance requirement has been so long a part of the educational system that all too frequently there is no recognition of the basic principles upon which attendance procedures should be built. Both principles and procedures are included in the following materials.

The School Census[1]

Within a particular school system attendance enforcement may be considered to present two rather distinct problems: first, getting all children enrolled, and second, keeping all enrolled children in reasonably regular attendance. For the accomplishment of the first task there is maintained a school census or enumeration. If such a record is to function efficiently, or even with reasonable accuracy, it must at any time include the names of all children of compulsory school age who should be on the rolls of the school system, and at the same time be free of all names that cannot be so classified. Inasmuch as the school population is never static,

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[1]Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, The Teacher and School Organization (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), pp. 409-410.

such a record must always be undergoing change. Children are constantly being moved from one school district to another or from one school area to another within the same system; others are reaching ages beyond the maximum for compulsory attendance; others are arriving at school age; some are leaving the public schools and entering private institutions or vice versa; some are becoming physically or mentally unfit to attend school; and still others are dying. All of these changing conditions must be accurately recorded by the school census if it is to be an effective instrument for the enforcement of attendance.

In the majority of school systems such is not the case. In the past the census has been required by most states primarily as a basis for the distribution of school funds and only secondarily as a means for the enforcement of attendance. As a consequence, it has been taken only periodically and then in many cases in an extremely careless and inaccurate fashion. Thus taken, it has served very inadequately as a basis for the enforcement of compulsory attendance laws.

Recently there has been developed in many of our leading city school systems a device commonly described as a continuing school census. As the term implies, the continuing census is a record of the school population that will furnish at any time an accurate basis for the enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws. Under such a plan the census card adopted will be filled out for every child in the school

district below the last age at which it seems desirable for the school to maintain its contact with the pupil. Authorities usually recommend that the record involve all ages below 18 years and as many years in advance of this age as the law may require.

The maintenance of an accurate school census as a basis for the enforcement of compulsory attendance presents some extremely difficult problems but none that cannot be solved if the combined efforts of the administrative staff, the attendance officer, and an intelligent teaching corps are brought to bear on them. That this is the case is evidenced by the fact that the continuing census is usually found operating in the city where the difficulties are greatest but where the administrative and teaching personnel is strongest.

Pupil Accounting Procedures[1]

In the absence of specific attendance rules directing otherwise, the following plan will be found to be workable.

1. Each teacher is to keep a record of the daily attendance of each pupil, in a register provided for that purpose.
2. Each teacher is to handle cases of tardiness, subject to such oversight as the principal sees fit to give.

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[1]Ellwood P. Cubberly, The Principal and His School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923), pp. 254-255.

3. There is ordinarily little reason for requiring a tardy pupil to go first to the principal's office and wait for his permission before coming to his room. Get the pupil into class and at work as quickly as possible, and attend to excuses afterward.

4. Pupils not present at a designated time are to be reported on slips or cards, to the office as outlined above.

5. In reporting pupils absent, teachers should give an opinion or guess, if illness or truancy is suspected.

6. Teachers should make an effort to find out from others why pupils are absent, and when found out, state reasons on subsequent reports.

7. Teachers should avoid making so much of the evil of tardiness that a pupil, especially in the lower grades, will go back home rather than be tardy.

8. Excuse those from work missed on account of sickness only until they shall have had time to make up, and those absent without a satisfactory excuse must make up the work lost outside of hours. Those excused may be helped on back work; those not excused to receive a zero on the time lost.

9. Excuses for tardiness and absence should first go to the teacher, and may be referred to the principal later, if she thinks it desirable or necessary. In the case of absences caused by truancy, or some form of pupil negligence, it often has a very wholesome effect if the pupil has to take the excuse to the principal and secure his approval. This should be done, though, at his office periods, or at intermissions.

10. When new pupils enter, or pupils leave or are transferred, the attendance officer should be notified accordingly.

11. Keep in mind that the machinery of attendance is only a means to an end, and that results often depend more on the attitude toward promptness and regularity assumed by the principal and teachers than upon compulsory enforcement.

12. It is well to establish helpful relations with the police as regards attendance. If pupils inclined to pay truant know that a number of persons in authority are likely to be looking for them, they will be more careful about their absences.

It must be remembered that the prime purpose of all regulations and machinery for attendance-enforcement is to try to establish habits of punctuality and regularity in attendance at school. This is done more for the future value of such habits to the pupil than for bringing up the average attendance, desirable as this may be. Something can be accomplished by using certain devices to stimulate attendance, much by building up a school spirit that will make pupils want to come to school promptly and regularly, and in a few cases something by an impartial and effective enforcement of the compulsory education law.

Preventing Non-Attendance[1]

The teacher certainly needs to know the general causes of non-attendance. The problem which is of more concern to her, however, is how to meet the issue of non-attendance in her school. The solution has two aspects, both of which require the exercise of discretion and common sense in their treatment. One is that of dealing with the cases that require

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[1]James H. Dougherty, F. H. Gorman, and C. A. Phillips, Elementary School Organization and Management (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), pp. 301-302.

correction; the other that of creating such conditions as will largely eliminate needless non-attendance.

Every case of non-attendance needs to be treated individually. The first step in the treatment should be careful diagnosis of the case. Corrective measures should be applied only after careful investigation and those employed should be chosen with the particular needs of the child in mind. Positive measures which are generally found successful when properly applied are: conferences with the pupils and their parents, assignment of a position of responsibility which requires the pupil's regular attendance, and the encouragement of pupils to establish a creditable attendance record. Corrective measures such as threatening, keeping after school hours, or during recess periods, or forcing the child to do extra study should be avoided. The reason for this is that the nature of the associations tend to create in the child a dislike for all experiences connected with school.

The problem of preventing non-attendance should be accepted by the teacher as a challenge. Her first method of attack should be to make the school such an attractive place for the child physically, socially, and educationally that he will want to come. The room should be suitable decorated. It should also be properly equipped for the comfort of the child as well as for work. The social life should be of such a type that he feels himself to be a secure and successful

part of it. The educational activity should be made for him a constantly enjoyable experience of growth and development. Children who are absent should be made to feel that the school is interested in their early return. All of us like to feel that we are appreciated by our associates and that we contribute something to the group that is missing when we are not present.

Simplified Plan for Checking Classroom Attendance[1]

At the close of the homeroom period, which opens the school day in Rawlings Junior High School, each room sends in to the central office a list of pupils who have not reported to the homeroom. From these lists the absentee list for the day is compiled. This list is put on a stencil, using a two-column listing at the top of the page. Rooms are listed in consecutive order. The rest of the stencil is ruled into nine or ten spaces and each space numbered to show a class period. As soon as the clerk can get the sheets run from the mimeograph, a sheet is sent to each teacher in the building.

This article is in no way concerned with the non-attendance of pupils whose names appear on the absentee list of the day. The teacher in charge of the attendance work handles the checkup on this list. That teacher in turn is not held reponsible for checking the attendance once the pupil is

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[1]M. A. Powell, "Simplified Plan for Checking Class-Skippers," Clearing House, XXIV (January, 1950), 275-276.

in school.

It would no doubt be much better if the same person handled both phases of the problem, but frequently the work is too much for the time allowed the teacher. Such was the case in this school. And so responsibility for class absence as contrasted to all-day absence is placed on the home-room teacher, with such assistance as may be needed from the principal and the assistant principal.

Insofar as possible, anticipated absences from classes for assemblies, field trips, athletic events, and other special activities are listed in the "Principal's Bulletin" for the day. The class teacher has this bulletin and the absentee bulletin for reference.

A glance at the seat chart for the class and at the bulletins quickly eliminates the need for reporting most absences. However, class teachers are expected to keep in their own class registers a record of all absences regardless of cause. Beside the numbered class period on the absentee bulletin the class teacher lists the pupils not accounted for. The homeroom number is written, with the name. The class teacher does this for each class period during the day. At the end of the day each class teacher's sheet should show all pupils not accounted for on either of the two bulletins mentioned.

Study-hall absences are listed on a special sheet,

since there may not be enough room in the period spaces on the absentee buletin. Teachers may want one or more pupils from a study hall for some definite reason. In this case a note signed by the teacher is supposed to be sent to the study-hall teacher during the period. It may and usually does take some help from the office to get names of pupils no longer in school or with changed programs removed from study-hall lists. Pupils may take on or drop special assignments on study-hall periods. Every effort is made to keep the rolls accurate, but at best it takes help from the office to get those rolls straightened out so that much needless reporting is eliminated.

During the early part of the last class period of the day, special messengers are sent to collect absence sheets, one from each class teacher. Study-hall absence lists are usually sent in as soon as made up, but any that are not in are collected.

Either the assistant principal or a clerk makes up a summary of absences for all rooms from these class and study-hall lists. Mimeographed sheets are used for these summaries. Each sheet is divided to allow a summary for six rooms at a time. Each of the six spaces is given an identifying room number and dated. A carbon is used so that the office will have a summary of class absences after the top sheet is divided and the proper part given to each homeroom teacher.

In transferring the class absences it was found that we needed to give not only the name of the pupil and the period of the absence but also the room from which the absence was reported. For study halls the period only needs to be given. The next morning the homeroom teacher receives not numerous absence slips but one slip showing all room absences reported.

It is up to the homeroom teacher to check on these class absences, calling upon the school office as needed to correct irregularities. Under this plan it is the responsibility of the pupil and not of the teacher to see that a slip is sent if the pupil is out of a study-hall to be with a teacher. After the system is in operation it is wise to refuse any and all pupils the right to cover a study-hall or class absence by a note which he wants to get later. Invariably attempts to cover absences are made when teachers are busy with their own homerooms and should not be bothered by pupils from other rooms.

As for a pupil being out of a regularly assigned class, such absence is usually allowed by the office only. There are times when last minute rehearsals and preparations for school activities make some class absences necessary, but these should have office approval. An attempt is made to notify homeroom teachers when pupils are unexpectedly excused during the day for one reason or another. In short, every

effort is made to keep the checking on the part of the home-room teacher at a minimum.

Developing Teacher Understanding of Pupil Accounting[1]

Since much of the original and primary information regarding pupil accounting must be discovered, interpreted, and recorded by teachers, it follows that teachers should have a clear conception of the aims and of the vital importance of such work. A theory of democratic school administration maintains that the teachers will do such work more intelligently and more effectively when the importance of their efforts is understood. The perfunctory taking of the census which is followed by some calculations to obtain figures to be used in a report to be sent to county or state authorities, and the subsequent filing of the census sheets or cards among the other inactive files to accumulate dust until some fair day for housecleaning, will certainly not arouse the enthusiasm of teachers who in some cases are called upon to contribute extra time for such work. Only when each report of absence from school or each item of information regarding a pupil not in school may be understood to have a very important relation to the success of the broad aims of the school program and to the duties of the teachers for which society employs them,

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[1]P. W. L. Cox and R. E. Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision (New York: American Book Company, 1934), pp. 376-377.

can teachers be expected to give the school census, school attendance, and other aspects of pupil accounting the professional service which they should receive. Teachers should understand and appreciate that adequate pupil accounting makes helpful information available to each teacher when needed. The high school administrator should try to develop in all teachers a professional appreciation of this school work.

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CHAPTER XIII

DISCIPLINE AND CITIZENSHIP

If chaos and disorder are associated with the term of an administrator, movement will not be delayed long by higher school officials for removal of the chaos, disorder, and the associating administrator. Breaches of social conduct are tolerated by neither autocratic nor democratic societies. The means and methods of achieving order necessary for the accomplishing of school tasks are many and varied. Here too, the method should fit the philosophy of the school.

Importance of Discipline[1]

One, to create and preserve the conditions essential to the orderly progress of the school. Cooperation on the part of the student, a sense of group responsibility, and an intelligent sympathy on the part of the teachers are essentials for the orderly progress of work.

Two, to prepare the student for effective participation in adult life. Many liberties should be granted the students, but they should be balanced with corresponding responsibilities. Allowing much freedom to the individual should imply the individual's use of this freedom for the welfare of society.

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[1]J. B. Edmonson, J. Roemer, and F. L. Bacon, The Administration of the Modern Secondary School (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948), Pp. 203-204.

Three, gradually to instill the fundamental lessons of self-control. This can be done by teaching the student the importance of remote over immediate ends. He should be taught to realize the values of persistence and effort.

Success of corrective measures. Analyses have shown that only about a third of the corrective measures commonly used are successful. It is both serious and unfortunate that teachers and principals are so unskillful in dealing with disciplinary problems.

The evidence is clear that kindness coupled with fairness and firmness achieves results. On the other hand, certain measures, rather effective in their relation to other activities, are intrinsically wrong. The giving of extra work as a penalty tends to make a student hate his studies. It puts schoolwork in an unnatural place and prevents wholesome attitudes of interest and initiative. Tocause a person to fail in his work or to lower his marks is also unjust.

Corporal punishment. Although common in the past, corporal punishment is now rare. Corporal punishment is generally condemned by educational writers, and opposition to all kinds of physical indignities is steadily growing. It is prohibited by the rules and regulations of some boards of education, and is considered inexpedient in many school systems because it tends to impair the morale of the school. Teachers are frequently advised that any form of corporal punishment

should be used only as a last resort, which generally means that it should not be used at all.

If, however, corporal punishment is authorized in a school and it does seem necessary as a last resort, the person administering it should take the following precautions: (1) make certain that the results will justify the means; (2) get the signed permission of the parents; (3) administer the penalty in the presence of a responsible witness; and (4) be certain that the student does not havegrounds for attributing any physical injuries to the punishment he receives. The administrator should realize that corporal punishment has given rise to numerous lawsuits that could have been avoided.

Detention. Many successful teachers favor the practice of detaining students after hours for misdeeds. This in general is a bad policy because: (1) it causes the student to dislike school, and (2) it is an unnecessary demand on the teacher's time. The teacher might better be enjoying physical recreation.

Personal conference. Personal conferences with students, with appeals to do the right thing, are always good for first offenders. In this connection, it is well to let the student do the talking and get him to prescribe his own penalty. Reproof should generally be given in conference and should consist of an unbiased statement of the conduct

and the reasons why it is not permissible.

The principal is in a position to know the worst offenders. Sometimes their parents believe them still to be in the "little Angel" stage. A sympathetic conference with parents calling attention to their child's troubles is often provocative of reform.

Restitution. Restitution for damage done and apology for real insults are good measures to insist upon. They are in line with the doctrine of the adaptation of the penalty to the misdeed.

Social disapproval. There is no deterrent to wrongdoing like that of social disapproval. Strong school pride and loyalty will brand the individual who harms the school. If someone mars a desk and his associates have the right spirit, the results will be unpleasant for the offender. This spirit is the product of a type of management and education that has been continuing for some time. If it can be aroused, it is the most effectual corrective measure known.

Control is a more serious problem in the high school than it is in the grades. In the high school, organizations spring up, and organized wrongdoing is a powerful force. It is necessary to check and destroy organizations having wrong ideals by means of student participation in school government and by rightly motivated groups.

Threats and humiliation. It should be obvious that making threats that will not be carried out will usually result in failure. The same may be said of unjust penalties. The student should realize the connection between the deed and the reward, good or bad. Such punishment as being compelled to mop the floors or to do extra work is ruled out. One test for the justice of penalties is that they should meet the approval of the punished. Offenders will realize the justice of decisions if the principal does not give way to personal feelings such as anger, but is always consistent, impartial, and judicial. Stormy scenes are recognized as a weakness by students.

The principal's attitude. Certain attitudes make the application of corrective measures easier. The principal should always be considerate, giving to the accused the benefit of any doubt and treating him as an adult, if possible. Spying does more harm than good; it is better to trust the pupil's sense of justice, which in most cases is very keen.

Practical suggestions on discipline. A teacher will find it profitable to check his disciplinary practices in terms of such proposals as these:

1. Set a good example as a teacher in matters of honesty, fairness, courtesy, kindliness, orderliness, industry, and reverence.
2. Create many opportunities for students to cooperate in activities for the good of the school or class.

3. Plan to use the surplus energy and initiative of students in directed playground activities, school assemblies, and other kinds of cooperative undertakings.

4. Routinize many matters of class management, such as taking the roll, collecting and distributing papers, inspecting desks, arranging illustrative materials, and adjusting shades.

5. Remove or modify conditions that cause disciplinary problems.

6. Cultivate the kind of morale that will cause students to show disapproval of misconduct by associates.

7. Create a spirit of success among the students in a school or class.

8. Give definite instruction in matters of courtesy and good sportsmanship.

9. Emphasize the rewards, honors, and merits of good conduct rather than the penalties of misconduct.

10. Treat all students in a kindly, impartial, and considerate manner.

11. Organize the work in such a manner as to keep students busy with profitable tasks during every minute of the school day.

12. Make early the few rules needed for the smooth running of the school or class.

13. Make the punishment of a student an individual matter. Do not punish the group for the misconduct of the individual.

14. Expect from students a fine type of conduct, but prepare for occasional disappointments.

The foregoing list of recommended practices is based on the assumption that the teacher should work cooperatively with the students and assist their efforts to grow in self-control and self-direction.

Decreasing Disciplinary Difficulties by Prevention[1]

Decreasing discipline by prevention. The end and aim of school management and control should be to build up in the school such an interest in work and good order that discipline, as such, will be largely unnecessary. To shift young people's ideals, by proper handling, from malicious mischief and general bad conduct to constructive work for a common good and purpose, and to make them feel that what they are doing is very important, is a wonderful service to them. It also contributes much to making a school easier to control. Constructive discipline, plenty of motivated school work, good teaching, good playground organization and inter-school games, organized pupil activities, a good grading and promotional plan, wise use of the assembly period, employment of the pupils as leaders, the awakening of a school pride and loyal spirit, the development of some type of community service, and the impress of the ideals and personality of strong teachers and a capable principal--all these contribute as preventive measures to decrease the necessity for much attention to discipline.

It is the business of the school to try to find and bring out the good that is in young people, and to turn youthful energy and spirit into useful channels. Unruly boys

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[1]Ellwood P. Cubberly, The Principal and His School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923), pp. 280-281.

and girls can often be almost completely changed in character by awakening their pride, making them feel that they are of real help and use, and filling them with a desire to become somebody worth while in this world. The school offers an alert principal and body of teachers plenty of constructive opportunities, both in the school and in the neighborhood, for training pupils for useful participation in civic life. To open up these possibilities for service and turn the energies of the young people into new and useful directions constitute important means for reducing disciplinary troubles, and for shifting the disciplinary problem to higher levels.

Basis of Discipline[1]

There really should be no chapter on discipline in a book on high school administration. What commonly goes by the name of discipline should be entirely eliminated, or handled as an incident to the guidance and social program. Discipline, in the narrow sense, must be regarded as a sign of defects in the social organization of the school. Therefore, the administrator should examine his program so that its functioning may be improved. Certain recurrent problems can generally be prevented by a change in machinery. For

[1]M. E. Morgan and E. C. Cline, Systematizing the Work of School Principals (New York: Professional and Technical Press, 1930), pp. 211-212.

example, in a school system in which the rental system is in vogue for textbooks, some extreme objection was raised to the plan because of the difficulties in collecting the fees and because of the bookkeeping involved. Pupils would not bring the fees promptly, or would not bring them at all. The fault was not with the pupils. They were merely taking advantage of defective school machinery to their own moral damage, to be sure. The fault was that the books were given out first, and only a vague statement made as to the time of payment. When a dead line was set for paying the fees, and something happened when the dead line was crossed, the fees were soon paid as consistently and promptly as any other school obligations were met. Administration implies foreseeing the problems and providing for them in advance.

But in spite of all social engineering and planning, the problem of discipline as such is an important one, and it is solved only as all other administration problems are solved--by beginning with the philosophy behind the entire problem.

One of the most difficult problems of a school executive is so to organize the school as to educate pupils and teachers out of the all too prevalent idea that discipline is a thing in itself--a distressing, incidental, concomitant of school work to be tackled only when something goes wrong, having no roots in the educational process as a whole

and having no particular educational value in itself. The solution of this problem through social organization, rather than through the establishment of a formidable machinery for handling misfits after they become conspicuously troublesome, is the only means that will yield worth-while social results. Nowhere else in school are means and ends more often confused than in the matter of discipline, and nowhere else is such confusion more harmful.

In social evolution, discipline has been, in turn, vengeful and repressive, preventive and reformative, educative and creative. Since discipline, in its narrower sense, is likely to be such a person-against-person affair, instinctive tendencies are aroused that reach back into the barbarous, savage, and animal past. It is, therefore, the business of the principal, so to organize things that the whole question of social control will be put on a higher plane, so that the direct, personal pressure from above down will be superseded as far as possible by indirect, social, "lateral" pressure from the surrounding group. So much for the <u>means</u> of <u>control</u>. The <u>end</u> of discipline is to develop self-control, or, better, self-direction. Such an end will never be attained as long as the end in view seems no more than preserving the semblance of order, or as long as, even from the pupils' standpoint, the end seems to be that of keeping them from doing what they want to do in order to get them to do what they do not want to do.

Modern Standards of Discipline[1]

Consistent with the modern conceptions of the goals of discipline, a marked reaction should be noted in what are considered to be desired standards of conduct in school. There has been a relaxation of the strain experienced by teachers and principals in trying to prevent all whispering, writing of notes, chewing gum, and to insure all the minor externals of conformance and respect. In place of this a more constructive program has been adopted looking forward to development by positive rather than negative means, to growth rather than repression, to initiative and freedom governed by acceptable ideals and interests rather than to self-restraint and inhibition actuated by fear and accompanied by resentment and other emotions and attitudes unfavorable to the development of qualities of good citizenship.

The modern principal or teacher well oriented in the philosophy and objectives of discipline does not ask "Is this conventional? Should pupils be permitted to 'get away with that'? Was I permitted as a pupil to do that?" In the order of their importance, he raises the following questions:

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[1]Harl R. Douglass, Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1932), pp. 270-271.

1. What relative net results, direct and indirect, for this pupil and for all others, will the various reactions I may make (including making no noticeable reaction) have upon the development of ideals and habits that are consistent with good citizenship and self-government?
2. What will be the effect upon the conditions for carrying on profitable educative activity?
3. What will people say?
4. What will be the effect upon the "authority" of the teacher or principal (beyond the indirect results mentioned in 1)?

In schools and classrooms where such standards prevail mechanical and deadly quiet, which was the goal of many teachers of the passing generation, will rarely be found, but in its place groups of busy, happy pupils ready to join in authority to disapprove really objectionable behavior. Perfection in conduct will not be found, but the perfecting of conduct will be abundant evidence. Practice and growth in citizenship and self-direction will be guided and not deprived of opportunity for development.

Administrator's Suggestions for Desirable Pupil Behavior[1]

Many discipline problems are teacher-made. That is to say they are created or made worse by poor judgment, or bad procedures on the part of the teacher herself. To be

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[1]H. R. McCall, "The Good Teacher is a Good Disciplinarian," American School Board Journal, CXX (March, 1950), 36.

sure, there are exceptions, for there will be discipline problems arising even with the ablest and most competent teachers. Every teacher should carefully evaluate her own procedures in each and every case, however, so as to improve her techniques in every way possible, thus reducing to a minimum her own responsibility for the disciplinary problems which do arise with her pupils.

Certainly, if an individual pupil or a group of pupils persist in creating disciplinary problems, the teacher should strongly suspect some weakness on her own part, and should carefully take stock of herself before placing the blame elsewhere.

. . . .Keeping children completely suppressed so that "pin-drop" order prevails at all times is one extreme; permitting them to do as they please at all times is the other extreme.

The child who is completely suppressed at all times is not being permitted to practice living as a citizen in a democracy. When the time comes, therefore, that he is out from under the teacher's thumb it is not surprising if he does not know what to do or how to behave. He has had no opportunity to learn how to use freedom. He learns to do by doing. On the other hand, the pupil who is permitted to do exactly as he pleases at all times is not being taught to assume responsibility for what he does and to accept the

consequences if he goes too far. The child must be impressively taught that for every right or privilege, there is a responsibility. If he is not willing to accept the responsibility, he must soon lose the right or privilege. Good judgment and common sense will guide the competent teacher to a sane and sensible middle ground between these extremes. She knows when she has a teaching-learning situation, and this she keeps at all times. Neither of these two extremes requires highly skilled, well-trained teachers. They are needed only for that "sane and sensible middle ground."

. . . .A teacher cannot be an excellent teacher without being a good disciplinarian. A teacher cannot be a really good disciplinarian without at the same time being a good teacher; for if she is really a good disciplinarian, she is teaching children to know right from wrong, and to want to do those things that are right instead of those that are wrong.

In other words, she is teaching them to know and to live the qualities of the good citizen in a democracy, and that is excellent teaching.

More specifically she maintains the type of classroom she desires by:

1. Keeping pupils interested and busy doing worthwhile activities.
2. Permitting as much freedom as pupils will use properly.

3. Establishing excellent teacher-pupil relationships.

4. By controlling her temper and her tongue at all times. The excellent teacher does not "fly off the handle" and use a sharp tongue with her pupils.

5. She plays no favorites.

6. She does not nag or fuss constantly at her pupils. She knows that pupils soon pay little or no attention to what she says, and many times even take delight in leading her on.

7. She does not make sarcastic remarks. She knows that to do so would be bad manners on her part. She also knows that it invites defiance.

8. She does not "bawl pupils out" or hold them up to ridicule before their classmates.

9. She is very careful not to make threats that she could not carry out without difficulty or embarrassment if the situation called for it. She knows that they are an invitation for trouble.

10. She is always courteous to her pupils.

11. She does not keep pupils in at recess time or after school as a form of punishment.

12. She does not send pupils to the principal for him to discipline. If a situation develops that she needs help on, she will send for the principal, or take the pupil to the principal so that together they may work out a solution to the problem.

13. She gets all the facts possible before administering any punishment. By doing this, she avoids the danger of punishing innocent children or punishing only a part of those involved.

14. She evaluates all punishment in terms of how it affects children's thinking. If the punishment does not correct the thinking, it has missed the mark.

15. All punishment, therefore, is designed to fit the pupil rather than the offense. The same punishment that would fit one pupil might be too severe for another, and not severe enough for still another.

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CHAPTER XIV

FACULTY MEETINGS

The need for group meetings of those concerned with the direction of the learning program seems most obvious. As in all group processes, adequate thought and planning must precede an effective meeting. The device of the meeting should be used only when it is the best means to accomplish some purpose. In some cases the administrative bulletin would be a better means to contact the teaching group than the general meeting. The following commentaries should provide helpful suggestions for more profitable and interesting faculty meetings.

Purposes of Faculty Meetings[1]

Teachers' meetings have two purposes: (1) to assist in the routine administration of the school or school system, and (2) to increase the professional competence of those who attend them. Although the first purpose cannot be neglected, the emphasis should be upon the second purpose. In these meetings the live problems in education which are of the greatest interest to the largest number of teachers should be discussed. Teachers justly dislike meetings of the grievance, grumbling, or scolding type, the bulletin-board type, and the lecture-by-the-principal or -superintendent type.

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[1]Ward G. Reeder, The Fundamentals of Public School Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937), pp. 105-106.

The live problems will not, of course, be the same in every school or school system, but the following list is suggestive of the types of problems which teachers generally are interested in discussing, and which they usually need to discuss: the marking system and how to improve it; how to reduce failure and retardation; supervised study; how to measure teacher efficiency; the use of the school library; the extracurricular program of the school; how to meet individual differences among pupils; the revision of the curriculum; educational and vocational guidance; how to secure greater cooperation between the home and the school; school discipline; improving the ethics of the profession; lesson planning; economy in the recitation; home study of pupils; character education; the merits of the junior high school organization; reviews of outstanding books on educational subjects; and reports of educational investigations. At these meetings, also, it is helpful to have demonstration lessons from time to time, and their discussion by all the teachers.

Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday are generally recognized to be the best days for holding teachers' meetings. For obvious reasons, Monday and Friday are usually the hardest days in the school week for teachers and at their close finds teachers already tired and ready to go home; teachers' meetings on these days should therefore be avoided.

Regarding the best hour for holding the meetings, there is no inviolable rule, although the general practice is to hold them immediately after school hours, particularly when the programs for the meetings are short. Another practice is to dismiss school during the last one or two periods of the school day and to hold the meetings wholly, or partly, on school time; most school officials, however, frown upon that practice. Still another practice is to hold the meetings during the evening; this practice is particularly advantageous when part of the evening can be devoted to social or recreational activities.

Worthwhile Faculty Meetings[1]

Rarely do teachers have kind words for general, all-faculty teachers' meetings. This does not necessarily prove that such meetings are without value, but it justifies a skeptical attitude toward their value as at present conducted. Most of the criticisms offered by teachers relative to general teachers' meetings relate to frequency of meetings, time of meetings, the conduct of the meetings, and the content of the meetings. There is no doubt but that some general meetings of teachers are necessary or desirable. Probably most schools have too many general meetings. A good rule to follow would

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[1]Alonzo F. Myers, et al., Cooperative Supervision in the Public Schools (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938), pp. 147-149.

seem to be to have a general meeting of teachers only when it is clearly necessary or desirable. Teacher reaction is a good measure, although not the only one, of necessity and desirability. For many purposes, administrative bulletins are superior to general meetings. When a general meeting must be called, it should be no longer than is necessary to accomplish its purpose. It is a good policy to have one day of the week be recognized as the day on which meetings will be called in order that teachers may be free to make other engagements on other days.

In nearly all types of teachers' meetings, the role of the teacher is too passive. The teacher generally did not desire the meeting, had nothing to do with deciding to have the meeting, had nothing to do with planning the meeting, and had nothing to do during the meeting except to sit and keep still. This habituation to the purely passive role has made teachers one of the least interesting of audiences. They almost never interrupt, discuss, ask questions, hiss, applaud, or say "Nuts." It is only a sign of intelligence when teachers resent being called to a teachers' meeting only to listen to the principal or a supervisor read a bulletin, a copy of which he has already placed in their hands.

Successful teachers' meetings are meetings that teachers recognize a need for, that they have helped plan, and in which they have an active rather than a passive role. Many

curriculum meetings are of this type. Departmental meetings may be of this type, depending upon the person who is chairman of the department. Meetings for the selection of textbooks and other educational supplies and equipment will be successful if the judgments of teachers really are desired. Meetings for the purpose of professional improvement and stimulation will be welcomed by teachers if they have a genuine opportunity to contribute more than their presence to such meetings.

Perhaps the very best type of group meeting of teachers is the purely voluntary meeting. The writer knows of one group of teachers that meets once each week with a teacher of creative dancing. They actually engage in creative-dancing activities. They receive no credit. They pay for the privilege of having these meetings. What they learn in these meetings is exceedingly helpful to them in their work with their pupils. These teachers engage in this activity on their own time and at their own expense because to them it is enjoyable and professionally worthwhile. There is an important lesson in this for supervisors who wonder why teachers do not have a "professional" attitude toward the conferences which they call. One of our difficulties is that we think all teachers should be interested in doing what we want them to do at the time we want them to do it. In modern schools, even children are given some voice in the selection of activities to be

engaged in at any given time.

Importance of Faculty Meetings[1]

If continuous group study is to go forward, if socialization is to be achieved and techniques of group thinking are to be learned, the attendance of every member of the teaching staff at faculty meetings is imperative. A "special" teacher such as a coach should believe that his participation in faculty discussion is more important than one football practice or other activity. The kindergarten teacher should feel that meetings of the faculty are of concern to all. Organic unity of the educative process can never be achieved until athletic coaches, kindergarten teachers, school dentists, and all other resource people realize that they are potential contributors to the unitary objective of education.

In faculty meetings, the group purposes that form the basis for all cooperative planning and action are developed. Faculty meetings make possible that interpenetration of thinking that allows the fourth-grade teacher to shed some light on the problems of the secondary school, and the high-school teacher to understand the aims and methods of the elementary school. There is no substitute for these experiences. All this assumes, of course, that the faculty meetings does indeed become such a medium for socialization and that genuinely

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[1]G. R. Koopman, A. Miel, and P. J. Misner, Democracy in School Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943), Pp. 178-179.

democratic procedures are followed.

The functional, socializing type of faculty meeting is apparently unknown to the principal who was heard to remark, "I don't have many general faculty meetings. There are so few things that all teachers should be interested in. For those I can use a mimeographed sheet. I prefer to save the teachers' time."

That principal is losing a precious opportunity, for the administrator has a vital part to play at every stage of the process of socialization of his teachers. The administrator is a competent observer. He can tell when the group as a whole is ready to attempt a new project. He can judge when a project has been planned in sufficient detail so that group pressure may be put behind its achievement. The administrator can measure growth in socialization on the part of his teachers by such signs as complete lack of strain, increased interest, increased motivation, and pleasurableness of reaction.

Check-List for Improved Teachers' Meetings[1]

The improvement of teachers' meetings is a continuous objective in every school system. If successful meetings were a commodity to be purchased on the open market of pro-

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[1]J. W. Edgar, T. Q. Srygley, "Do's and Don'ts on Teachers' Meetings," The School Executive, LXVII (September, 1947), 57-58.

fessional education, they would bring a premium price from school superintendents at all times.

Of course, no opportunity exists for the purchase of such a commodity at any price; and, consequently, the administrator who achieves success with a plan of teachers' meetings does so only through the application of careful planning and the skillful execution of his plans.

At times, teachers' meetings fall below the desired goal even though they have been planned well and executed correctly. Very often success hinges on some small detail easily overlooked because of its apparent insignificance. When meetings fall below par, the superintendent, or any official responsible for evaluation, often is able to discover the reason by the use of a checklist of his own making.

No one pattern exists for such a list. A very worthwhile analysis is made from a listing of things which should be done and those which should be avoided--the do's and don'ts.

Practices That Are Good

1. Make the planning of teachers' meetings the responsibility of a committee representing the various levels and sections of the faculty.

2. Have meetings provide group experiences needed to carry forward an official program of the school.

3. Furnish teachers attending the meeting with background materials on the subject to be discussed far enough in advance for each one to be in a position to participate intelligently in the affairs of the meeting.

4. Have the work done at a teachers' meeting evaluated by a sub-group of the faculty and then made an official part of the particular program to which it relates.

5. If the meeting is a general one, be sure the experiences it provides are broad enough to relate to the work of every teacher who attends.

6. If the meeting is a work group on an aspect of the school program, be sure the experiences it provides are specific and directly related to the problem at hand.

7. If the meeting is a social one, be sure it is purely social and that it provides real social experiences.

8. If the meeting is a professional one, be sure it is entirely under the auspices of the local professional association.

9. If the meeting is "called," see that it informs teachers on vital topics about which they want information--salaries, community reactions, pupil needs, etc.

10. Have the plans for meetings checked by officials of the faculty in order to be sure that the materials are worthwhile and that they meet the local standards for faculty meetings.

11. Schedule meetings far enough in advance that teachers may plan their own work schedules as well as their personal calendars.

12. Require attendance at a regular faculty or group meeting at which the program relates to the welfare of the school system as a part of the teacher's contractual obligation.

13. Make attendance optional at a meeting for which the purpose is inspirational, social, professional, or relates in any way to the welfare of the individual teacher.

14. Emphasize the importance of teachers' meetings by holding them, whenever possible, during the scheduled working hours.

15. Operate meetings on schedule--beginning and ending on time.

16. Hold meetings at a location easily accessible and at a place where the physical environment is comfortable.

17. Hold meetings at an hour of the day and on a day of the week which fit best the work schedule and pattern of living required of the faculty. Saturday, for instance, is ordinarily an important personal day for teachers.

18. Be sure that teachers leave the meeting feeling that their intelligence has been respected, that they are better teachers by having participated in the meeting, and that they "belong."

19. Use variety in programs of meetings in order to add "punch" and vitality.

20. Restrict the number of formal general meetings in order to permit teachers more time for work-type or laboratory meetings.

Practices to Avoid

1. Don't hold a teachers' meeting just because it has been scheduled, and don't refuse to cancel a meeting for a good reason.

2. Don't hold a meeting on an afternoon or night before a holiday.

3. Don't hold a meeting just to give a speaker an opportunity to talk.

4. Don't check the roll at teachers' meetings unless matters of the meeting require it.

5. Don't fail to keep a record of the meeting either in the form of a summary, stenographic record, or official minutes; and don't fail to make this record available to all teachers within a short time after the meetings.

6. Don't be afraid to have meetings wherein members of the faculty are fully informed on administrative matters and issues, and don't be afraid to seek the counsel of the faculty on such matters and issues.

7. Don't permit special-interest groups from outside the faculty to utilize time at teachers' meetings. Worthy community projects which need the official endorsement and support of the faculty and the school should be considered first by faculty officials and then presented by these officials to the faculty. Projects which need the support and participation of teachers as individual citizens should be handled at meetings of the local professional organization and not at faculty meetings.

8. Don't permit any one teacher to usurp the discussion time in a meeting with a prolonged expression of personal opinion. Such an expression, while affording the speaker emotional release, reacts negatively on the spirit of the meeting.

9. Don't bore teachers at a meeting with a repetition of materials which are known to all and don't give time at a meeting to materials which have been sent to the teachers previously.

10. Don't use the teachers' meeting to rebuke, criticize, or reprimand individual teachers. Such experiences are embarrassing to all in attendance.

11. Don't forget to provide the press and radio with an agenda before the meeting. If full reportorial representation is not at the meeting, don't forget to provide the press and radio with follow-up material on the meeting.

12. If the school system follows the policy of sending members of the faculty to represent the school at national and other important professional meetings, don't neglect to have these delegates report their experiences to the faculty at the appropriate teachers' meeting. Don't forget to see that these reports are restricted to an analysis and interpretation of professional information.

13. Don't permit meetings of the local professional unit to become an appendage of the faculty meeting, and on the other hand, don't permit the faculty meeting to be overshadowed by meetings of the local professional group. Don't let either get out of balance.

14. Don't neglect to orient the entire faculty at the first meetings of the school year with materials developed by faculty groups during the summer months.

15. Where summer workshops are to be held, don't neglect to hold meetings during the preceding school year wherein the entire faculty may enter into the planning of the workshops.

16. Don't fail to provide sufficient time in a meeting for a discussion of issues in order that all issues may be fully understood by every member of the faculty.

17. Don't fail to appoint a committee of faculty personnel to evaluate the year's program of teachers' meetings and don't neglect to have this committee report their findings to the faculty.

18. Don't follow the same program pattern at each meeting, but utilize the techniques best adapted to a successful handling of the materials at hand.

19. Don't call meetings during peak work periods of the faculty.

20. Don't be reticent at any meeting in acknowledging the good work done by faculty members--these expressions are always in order.

Participation for Effective Teachers' Meetings[1]

From the first get-together the membership should understand that planning for subsequent meetings is its responsibility. It is the extremely unique group that cannot be vested with self-direction for maximal progress if time pressures can be controlled. Meeting time, place, emphases, direction, leadership should all be within the group's jurisdiction.

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[1]Charles R. Nelson, "What, Another Meeting?" Educational Leadership, VII (January, 1950), 258-259.

We All Play a Role

The role of the chairman is crucial, of course, for effective meetings. He plans extensively with the planning committee inasmuch as a great deal of preplanning is necessary. Starting the discussion on time, "setting the stage," sustaining a fertile atmosphere, maintaining balance of discussion, providing variety and techniques, keeping the group moving, pushing toward solutions, providing for summarizations, suggesting follow-up activities, projecting purposes to subsequent meetings, pressing for face-to-face commitments, and closing on time are some of the responsibilites of the chairman. Keeping on a schedule demands dogged determination, but it is done with a minimum of overt effort so that efficiency and good morale prevail. He builds on the constructive, not necessarily agreeable, comments. The chairman enjoys the discussion!

The individual participant accepts the responsibility of acquainting himself with purposes of the meeting, with probable topics involved, and the starting hour. For constructive participation he stresses issues involved instead of personalities; disciplines himself to contribute verbally to a reasonable extent; assumes the center of interest when appropriate; listens critically and provides questions, answers, and suggestions which are relevant; and assists the chairman in achieving progress toward defined purposes, and

in maintaining the fertile atmosphere.

The resource person assumes the obligation of acquainting himself with the nature of the group, the purposes of the meeting, and the manner in which the group wants him to function. He prepares his contributions in terms of these facts. Stimulating the group process in addition to bringing information to bear on the topic at hand are his responsibility. Sustaining verbal participation through adroit questioning, recognizing members in various ways, and continuously easing group tensions are of equal importance to the delivery of his remarks. Adherence to his allotted time is usually essential for the most effective reception of his treatment of the topic. A magnificent contribution can be weakened substantially when accompanied by extended timekilling near the time of adjournment.

The recorder usually keeps a running account of the important points discussed during the meetings. Often the group's secretary has this responsibility. If a group is interested in action, this participant is exceedingly important, for the recording of solutions or agreement on the subsequent steps must be retained and made available in the minutes for continuity.

The observer is a participant whose role is vital for appraising many groups. He acts, in a sense, as a welcome intruder who watches the proceedings of the meeting

through a window and cannot resist stepping into the circle near the close of discussion to make observations concerning the interaction of the various participants and ideas. Not all groups find a need for this participant. Some groups use the observer frequently, but not regularly. As a group matures in its readiness for analyses of its social interaction, the observer serves to give strong impetus to its progress.

We Evaluate Our Growth

Frequent evaluation is in order. Did the meeting answer the purposes as set out in the beginning? Does the group see the next steps ahead? Did enough members participate to reveal a cross section of opinion? Was something accomplished, even in the broad sense?

The chairman doesn't have to start this analysis. Any participant can. He can interest the group in evaluating its progress. Possibly one member can take two to five minutes at the close of the meeting to share with the group the overt signs of progress, immobility, or even regress. Once in a while the group should receive a short evaluation sheet, check list type, so that a group reaction can be obtained. This is often asked of each participant as he rises from the table to leave. It is prudent to place only enough emphasis on the method of the meeting so that it serves to an optimum extent to make the content as fruitful as possible. Occasionally groups extend to make the content as fruitful as possible.

Occasionally groups become so enthusiastic about the process of interaction that content is relegated to a secondary position.

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CHAPTER XV

THE PRINCIPAL AND SUPERVISION

Among the responsibilities of the school principal, the supervision of instruction is of top importance. In supervision there is the basic function of improving the learning conditions of the pupils. Since administration in general has, as a strong purpose, the improvement of instruction, the principal must act as supervisor and coordinator of supervision in his role as educational leader. In systems employing general and special supervisors in addition to administrators, the principal is called upon for administrative direction of the program. However it may be, the present-day principal needs an ever-expanding understanding of the role of supervision in today's schools.

Basic Purposes of Supervision[1]

The fundamental test of the efficacy of supervision is whether it exercises leadership and whether there develops from such leadership a better type of education for the pupils. Unless supervision contributes to securing for the pupils a better type of education it is a parasite and a debauchery of public funds. A searching analysis of the fundamental purposes of supervision is contained in a report of a committee of supervisors and principals of the schools of Washington, D. C.--a committee which was appointed by the

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[1]Ward G. Reeder, The Fundamentals of Public School Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937), pp. 100-102.

superintendent of schools to study the question; in its report to the superintendent the committee says that the following should be the purposes of supervision:

1. To stimulate teachers and pupils toward right thinking and energetic action. To make each individual teacher and pupil feel that he must express his own personality and reaction to any given problem or situation rather than the reaction of the supervisor.

2. To develop in supervisor and teacher a knowledge of educational skill, breadth of view, and sympathy in supervision.

3. To evaluate the work of the teacher and to improve teaching by constructive and sympathetic criticism and suggestion.

4. To lead to an understanding of proper professional and ethical standards.

5. To coordinate and correlate the work of different departments and different teachers. To eliminate waste effort and unnecessary duplication. To secure a maximum of cooperation, good feeling, and public spirit in the teaching corps and the student body. To enlist teachers and supervisors in cooperative effort.

6. To evolve a curriculum which will permit the maximum of attainment with a minimum expenditure of time and effort. To secure a proper sense of educational values on the part of the teacher.

7. To aim for a maximum of educational results from money expended for public education.

8. To standardize the best physical and material conditions for the welfare of the pupil.

9. To use discrimination in assignment of teachers to tasks for which they are best suited.

10. To test and judge pupils as to their educational, physical, moral, and social condition and progress.

11. To adapt teaching to individual differences in pupils.
12. To emphasize the fact that education should be in part the outgrowth of sociological conditions.

Teachers testify that the aforementioned purposes are not always kept in mind and realized by the supervisors under whom they have worked. They complain in loud chorus that a large part of the so-called supervision is inspection only; they often dub it "snoopervision." They further complain that too much supervision is based upon opinion, that it is expressed in dictates from above, and that it is destructive and discouraging rather than constructive and encouraging. Too many supervisors are too cock-sure; they permit themselves to believe that they are endowed with Solomon's wisdom and an emperor's infallibility. Often the supervisor gives evidence of needing a supervisor as much as the teacher needs one.

In what spirit should the supervisor go about his work? Always he should keep an open mind; his methods should be impersonal and free from bias. He should realize that there are very few things in education about which he can be sure, and nothing about which he can be dogmatic; at present, there are many things in education about which one person's opinion is as good as another's; it has already been remarked that a science of education is only in its beginning. He should go about his work in a spirit of inquiry and humility; "Blessed are the meek..." the Scriptures would tell him. His methods

should seldom, if ever, be the methods. He should make the teacher feel that he is his friend and that he is there to help him, if possible.

Development of Supervision[1]

Formerly, supervision began with visits to classrooms where friendly inspection was made of the teacher's activities. This, supplemented by teachers' meetings, was the main field of activity for the supervisor. Gradually part of this emphasis shifted to preparing materials for teachers, and supervision came to include syllabus-making and preparation of written directions for teachers. However justifiable this practice may have been at its best, it fell into disrepute and has given place to a type of supervision in which the supervisor spends much less time in classrooms and more in conferences, group study, directing tryouts on new curriculum materials, helping to plan work, helping to diagnose and interpret teaching difficulties for individuals and groups, helping to interlock teaching with testing, counseling, the social activities program, and with home life. These conferences cover a wide field: how to deal with certain speech defects that are causing personality disturbances, how to evaluate the results of efforts on a program of social training, how to deal with

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[1]Jesse B. Sears, Public School Administration (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), pp. 286-288.

perplexing cases of discipline, how to deal with home difficulties that are defeating the teacher's work; or, not infrequently, a teacher needs help of a more personal sort having to do with his own preparation, health, personality, or future chances in the profession. Thus, supervision may work at difficulties that center in the children or in the conditions under which they live, in the curriculum or things that go with the curriculum, in the library and teaching equipment, in the physical surroundings that condition the work, in community relationships with the school, in the teacher's lack of knowledge and skill, or in the teacher in a personal sense.

This growth to a more inclusive type of service has met with difficulties not yet fully mastered in many places. Back of this concept of supervision is a basic theory of the educative process and of the school. The older supervision tried to improve the teacher, and, especially, the materials of the curriculum. The textbook subject matter was the basic, unalterable foundation of learning. All pupils alike must master it. The present view makes subject matter more elastic. That is, we have specified objectives or goals toward which we work in teaching, but we do not lead all children over the same path of knowledge to the ends sought. Today the important center is the child as an individual and not alone as a member in the social and physical world in which he is to live. The goal is to develop the child physically, mentally, aesthetically,

socially, and occupationally so that as a particular individual he will attain all that is possible for him to attain in the way of capacity to live effectively in his social and physical world. This shift of emphasis from subject matter to the child in a social and physical world does not do away with subject matter but it makes subject matter a means, not an end.

Function of the Administrator-Supervisor[1]

If the activities of school administrators and supervisors can be fairly evaluated only in terms of function or purpose, it is proper that the prospective teacher recognize in general and in some detail what it is that the administrator-supervisor or the special supervisor is supposed to accomplish. An answer to such a query is not difficult to give in general terms. It is the business of the supervisor to work with the teacher on those projects which will most immediately and directly improve learning conditions for the children. As previously implied, the one to be benefited by supervision, or by all school procedures for that matter, is in the last analysis the child. Any properly trained teacher would, if left to his own resources, produce certain desirable changes in the children instructed. The degree to which these desir-

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[1]Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, The Teacher and School Organization (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), pp. 301-302.

able gains are increased by the cooperation of the teacher with a supervisor is the real measure of the effectiveness of the work of the latter. The purposes of education are certain knowledges, habits, attitudes, ideals, and appreciations on the part of the child. Those things that will directly facilitate the accomplishment of desirable ends of these kinds are legitimate activities of the supervisor. Obviously, when such an interpretation is employed, supervision is not limited to a few stereotyped procedures. It may include teachers' meetings of a certain type, classroom visitations, and personal conferences. All of these activities are important, but they are limited aspects of a total program designed to further the growth and development of the teacher, and through such a process to fulfill the functions of supervision. Among other functions that the supervisor may have in mind are (1) getting teachers to define and use the purposes of education as dynamic forces in their work with pupils, (2) helping teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction, (3) developing in teachers a growing recognition of the factors that affect learning, and (4) working with them cooperatively to eliminate weaknesses in the teacher-learner situation.

Some Recommended Practices in Supervision[1]

Supervision is sometimes neglected because those responsible for this service have never formulated a series of supervisory policies and practices. The alibi that an administrator has too many other duties, and that it takes too much time to carry out a supervisory program is also occasionally offered as an excuse for the neglect of supervision. It is instructive to consider the question, "What are some of the policies and practices in supervision that produce desirable results and that do not require a large amount of time?" The authors believe that the following supervisory practices and policies can be defended as effective and also as economical of time:

1. At the beginning of the school year, present to the teachers materials on objectives of education, as teachers need to be constantly reminded of the major goals of school instruction.

2. Request teachers at the end of the first two weeks of each semester to submit a general outline of each of their courses in order that they may be encouraged to plan their work in advance. Each outline need not exceed two pages in length.

3. Place copies of self-improvement cards in the hands of the teachers with directions to check their own practice.

4. Have a committee develop a plan for united emphasis by teachers on the training of pupils in effective habits of study.

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[1]J. B. Edmonson, J. Roemer, and F. L. Bacon, The Administration of the Modern Secondary School (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948), pp. 418-420.

5. Develop through conferences, or a committee, certain common understandings relative to the school's philosophy of discipline.

6. Secure agreements among teachers as to desirable instructional procedures in reading and other school subjects. A Committee may study the problem and submit a report for consideration by the other teachers.

7. Use committees to define common problems on which teachers from various levels and grades may work cooperatively, such as problems in the field of health, citizenship, reading, and public relations.

8. Provide for visiting other grades, in order that a teacher may become acquainted with the work above and below his regular assignment.

9. Invite some outstanding teacher in a higher institution, or in a neighboring school, to meet with one or more of the different departments or grades for a discussion of teaching methods, content of courses, and related matters.

10. Arrange for each teacher to spend, at least once a year, a full day in visiting the classes of a teacher in some neighboring school. Such a visit should be carefully planned.

11. Encourage teachers to make use of the more reliable and valid standardized tests as teaching aids, and as measures of effectiveness of instruction.

12. Purchase samples of various kinds of timesaving materials and other teaching devices, and circulate these among teachers of different subjects.

13. Encourage the more resourceful teachers in each major division to make trials of new materials or new teaching procedures.

14. Encourage teachers to build a professional library according to a plan to be developed by the teachers. Use a committee to devise the plan, to select the books, and to promote the use of the library.

15. Organize the teachers of English and the languages into a group under the chairmanship of a teacher of their own choice, and do the same with teachers of other subjects that are related. Plan with the chairmen of these groups for occasional meetings, at which content of courses, new materials, methods, measuring of results, reports on visits to other schools, and notable magazine articles would be discussed.

16. Circulate copies of newer textbooks among teachers, and urge them to make comparisons with the textbooks they are using.

17. Cause teachers to feel that full credit and praise will be enthusiastically given for exceptional work in any field.

18. Cultivate an active interest on the part of teachers in the work of professional organizations, encouraging attendance and participation, as well as the reading of the professional publications. Have a standing committee on professional relationships.

19. Strive to give the school system a personality by selecting some element or issue that most teachers and pupils would desire to emphasize in the social or intellectual life of the school. Have an issue each year, or for a series of years, that would be a challenge to teachers, such as "citizenship," "guidance," "individualization," "health," "character," or "study habits."

20. Devote at least five hours a week to visiting classes in order to get general impressions of the spirit of the classes, secure illustrations of good and doubtful practices in classroom procedure, discover superior teaching, and discover which teachers need special help.

The point of view that supervision should be democratic rather than autocratic is accepted by the authors. Most of the foregoing proposals are therefore based on the assumption that it is desirable to provide opportunities for teachers to work cooperatively on their own problems of im-

provement. A supervisor should keep constantly in mind that it is not only important to know what is good practice, but necessary to consider carefully the plan for winning acceptance by teachers. Acceptance should be sought through demonstrations, conferences, and cooperative studies by committees of teachers.

Self-Appraisal Form for the School Administrator as Supervisor[1]

1. Am I qualified to carry out my duties in supervision in regard to:
   a. Health?_____
   b. Ability?_____
   c. Decisiveness?_____
   d. Reliability?_____
2. Do I observe the principles of good human relations in dealing with my teachers?
   a. Let each person know where he stands._____
   b. Provide each staff member an opportunity to work to the limit of his ability._____
   c. Give credit where credit is due._____
   d. Let each staff member know in advance about changes which will affect him._____
3. Is my supervision democratic in that:
   a. I believe all people can be improved through learning?_____

[1]James H. Fox, Charles E. Bish, and Ralph W. Ruffner, School Administration Principles and Procedures (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), pp. 66-67.

b. I am concerned about each individual teachers needs?_____

c. I allow for the give and take of ideas by all members of the staff?_____

d. I recognize and promote the "team" concept?_____

e. I recognize that there is much I can learn from my teachers, both as individuals and as a group?_____

4. Is my supervision cooperative in that:

a. Teachers have a part in planning and carrying out the supervisory program?_____

b. Teachers work together as a team?_____

5. Is my supervision creative in that:

a. I stimulate creativeness in teachers?_____

b. I provide opportunities for creative expression by teachers?_____

6. Am I aware of the limitations of objective measurements of teaching and learning?_____

7. Am I aware of the limitations as a supervisory technique?
_____

8. Is the supervisory program carefully planned?

a. Do teachers have a part in the planning?_____

b. Is adequate time afforded teachers to participate in the program?_____

c. Have I allotted adequate time of my own to carry out my supervisory duties?_____

9. Have I done my part in creating an environment conducive to teacher growth?

a. Do teachers have personal confidence in me?_____

b. Do I have the professional respect of my teachers?___

c. Are abundant stimuli provided for teacher growth?____

d. Do I reduce the harassments and annoyances to teachers as much as possible?_____

e. Are promotions based on performance and ability?_____

f. Do I give repeated, honest recognition of worth to the efforts of my teachers?_____

g. Do I provide opportunities for teachers to engage in needed recreation?_____

10. Do I know my teachers individually as well as possible?

a. Do I know something of the scale of values held by each teacher?_____

b. Do I aid teachers in achieving a feeling of worth?___

c. Do I recognize the importance of "face" and observe its principles as much as possible in supervision?___

11. Do I give specific initial help to individual teachers in undertaking projects that lead to personal growth?

a. Has every teacher begun such a project?_____

b. Have I given aid in selecting and carrying out these projects?_____

12. Are the activities or techniques used in the supervisory program varied, and are they suitable to the school situation?

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CHAPTER XVI

SUPERVISED AND PREPARATORY STUDY

Serious questions about the study patterns of school have been raised often through the past years. Most schools of the secondary level still retain the study hall whether or not they have a program of supervised classroom study. The school staff should recognize the need for practices that are consistent with the planned educational program. A proper study environment should promote and give training to students in this necessary learning of self-directed study.

Study and the Learning Process[1]

Not many years ago the chief responsibilities of the teacher were the keeping of order, the assigning and hearing of lessons, and the punishing of pupils who broke the rules of conduct or who failed to memorize or otherwise prepare their assignments. Since it was generally held that all pupils could study effectively without direction or supervision if they wished to do so, little or no attention was devoted to methods of study. This practice resulted in the production of a large number of academic casualties and the elimination of many pupils from school. Somewhat later, considerable attention was given to the length and the division of the class

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[1]C. R. Maxwell and L. R. Kilzer, High School Administration (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1936), pp. 344-345.

period in order that time might be provided for the supervision of study in the classroom; but until recently, very little was done to develop effective habits of study in pupils. Today it is held that the teacher must be an active stimulator and supervisor of pupils' learning activities rather than a passive hearer of lessons, and parents are no longer expected to teach at home the lessons which the teachers will hear the pupils say in school the following day. Emphasis has shifted from the hearing of lessons by teachers to the preparation of lessons by pupils under efficient supervision in the classrooms, and from the mere accumulation of knowledge to training and practice in finding, retaining, and applying useful information. Study is, therefore, more important than recitation, and in our most progressive schools a larger percentage of the class period is being devoted to study than to recitation.

One of the means by which the modern high school can meet its responsibility for giving pupils adequate training in effective habits of study is supervised study. Both the dynamics (the actual processes involved in teaching and in learning) and the mechanics of supervised study are highly important, but in a treatment of high-school administration the discussion must concern itself primarily with the latter aspect.

Development of Supervised Study[1]

Teaching in secondary schools in this country is undergoing a steady departure from the traditional method of daily assignment and recitation characteristic of teaching a quarter of a century ago. These changes, which are well along in their development, grew largely out of the recognition (1) of the need for attention to the variation in capacities to learn existing among pupils in the same class, and the increasing degrees of such differences resulting from the tendency for larger percentages of boys and girls to go on to high school; (2) of the futility of home study, increasing with the increasing high-school enrollments and with the increasing opportunities for enjoyment of the evening in ways other than study; and (3) of the importance for training pupils in initiative and skill in methods of study and thinking. For a quarter of a century secondary-school teachers in a steadily increasing number have been employing some form of supervised study.

Many of the more recent developments in teaching theory and practice have originated as special types or modifications of earlier attempts to provide adequate guidance and training in study through supervision of pupils' study. Earlier plans for supervised study commonly involved a double period or a lengthened period, divided into approximately equal divisions, the first of which was given over to recita-

[1]H. R. Douglass, Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1932), pp. 329-330.

tion and the second to assignment and recitation. In a great many schools this plan has not proved as desirable as had been anticipated. Instructors seemed unwilling or unable to confine recitation to the first half of the period, and this resulted in the use of the lengthened period for more recitation at the expense of the time formerly available to the pupil for study. To train pupils to use the "supervised study" time in the study of the appropriate subject proved a perpetual and discouraging struggle. Teachers seemed not to know or to learn rapidly how to train pupils in effective methods of study during the available period, and it was difficult to adapt daily assignments to varying amount of time left for study during the class period.

Administration of the Study Hall[1]

Two problems, one individual and one group, present difficulties in study-hall administration: (1) the pupil who cannot concentrate in a large group; (2) the pupil, or pupils who wish to engage in small group study. There are pupils who are so constituted mentally that their attention is easily distracted. Hence, although they may try to apply themselves faithfully, they cannot keep their mind on their work. Even in an orderly study hall the necessary and desirable busy noises disturb them and make concentration impossible. Such

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[1]Hannah Logassa, The Study Hall (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 55-56.

pupils need to be trained to work in large groups. They are not living in a vacuum, and the emergencies of adult life may make working in a large group necessary. However, if after an honest but unsuccessful attempt to correct this study difficulty has been made by the pupil, he should be allowed, if feasible, to go home for study. If conditions there are not right, he should be scheduled to an empty classroom or office to work by himself. Very few, in any, of such special adjustments are desirable, for reasons that are obvious. All plans for study halls in new buildings should make provision for such special individual study by providing a series of small rooms with glass partitions opening out from the study hall, so that there may be adequate supervision.

There are relatively few pupils who cannot concentrate in large groups, but there are many pupils who wish to study together. Providing facilities for small group study must be undertaken by all schools. Progressive methods of teaching require group creative effort. This is different from the type in which one pupil in the group does all the work while all the other pupils copy the work and hand it in as their own. The new group study has a different basis; it is the result of teacher stimulation to which each pupil responds in his own way, and which results in a group project. This requires pupil planning, organization, division of activity, and discussion, until the group undertaking has reached its

final stage of completion. Obviously group activity of this kind could best be carried on under the supervision of the classroom teacher. However, this usually is impractical because the classroom teacher does not have time for it. Moreover, there are greater educational values to be gained if the pupils take responsibility for their own self-direction with a minimum of teacher help and supervision.

The study-hall situation is designed for silent study, therefore group study is not practical in the room. Because group study requires conferences and discussion, the activity involved would disturb other pupils engaged in silent study. Some provision should be made for small groups working together, either in classrooms under the oversight of teachers or by providing small conference rooms with glass partitions connected with and a part of the study hall.

Study-Hall Procedure[1]

In schools in which different teachers handle study halls, it is wise to have as much uniformity as possible in the rulings with regard to study-hall procedure. Otherwise there is sure to be comparison and criticism when one teacher allows what another forbids. A set of rules drawn up by a group of such teachers is shown below.

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[1]M. E. Morgan and C. E. Cline, Systematizing the Work of School Principals (New York: Professional and Technical Press, 1930), pp. 165-166.

Study-Hall Rules

Pupils may not go to lockers or home rooms for books or supplies during a study period.

They may leave only in case of emergency, and then--only two pupils may leave and be out of the study hall at one time.

No pupil may remain out of a study hall more than five minutes.

No pupil may leave the study hall until the attendance has been checked.

No pupil may leave the study hall after ten minutes before the end of the period.

A study hall is a place for study, for the preparation of work for the classroom. It is not a place for the reading of newspapers or books not related to some phase of school work.

Pupils may not sit together to study.

No paper is to be given out by the study-hall teachers. Pupils are expected to secure paper from the teacher who assigns work.

No pens or pencils will be furnished by study-hall teachers.

Pupils will be expected to study until the bell rings for dismissal.

Pupils must be in their seats when the second bell rings or they are tardy.

It would, of course, be impossible to devise one set of study-hall rules to fit every system. Some of the above probably need revision. The principal test has been passed, however, in that they have worked for the teachers who have used them. One of the most difficult duties in any school is the supervision of the study hall. The practice of assigning study halls to those teachers who are left over after each department program is completed is unwise. If the best supervisors are chosen for this position, the effect on the morale of the entire school will justify any loss to a particular department. Here is an opportunity for some of your best teachers to help pupils learn how to study. During this study-hall period, the teacher can find more important work to do than correcting papers.

Homework in the School Program[1]

Must school children have homework to do? This question is frequently asked by parents. Some are offering the question as a complaint against what they term progressive education without homework and others are complaining about too much homework.

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[1]R. H. Ostrander, "Homework in the Modern Manner," School Executive, LXVIII (October, 1948), 48-49.

Education, in the minds of many, as far as elementary and secondary school children are concerned, has come to mean child growth and development under guidance. The growth embraces physical, social, emotional, mental, and spiritual development. For each child the ideal is for the maximum growth commensurate with native ability and readiness. The guidance is supplied by the home, the school, the church, and all other agencies of the community that have the responsibility, ability, and resources for assisting children in their growth.

A program of education based on this conception of its goals certainly will have homework. How could it possibly be otherwise? Does the child stop thinking when he leaves the classroom? The fullest development of a child's potentialities depends upon close cooperation between parents and teachers. They should have identical goals and understand each other's methods and plans for attaining them. When cooperation between the home and the school approaches the ideal, parents will no longer ask the homework question. They will accept homework under its new meaning; those experiences in the lives of children which occur outside the schoolroom which tend to foster desirable physical, social, emotional, spiritual, and mental growth. Such experiences, under the guidance of parents, supplement and extend the school experiences.

Does this mean homework in the elementary school? Yes, but in keeping with the definition. Bob, a third-grade child, may volunteer to join some classmates in establishing an insect collection. He will bring a beautiful luna moth to school and begin real research, on his own level of development of course. Martha, a fifth-grader, might be preparing a report for her class on Florida, which she visited last winter. She might use the brochures and road maps her parents secured while preparing for the trip. She might use books from the school and the public libraries. She would gain experience in planning, preparing, and presenting her report. The opportunity of being an accepted, desired part of her class helps Martha to gain poise and emotional stability. There is also the inner satisfaction of recognition by her classmates of a job well done. Such a homework assignment plays a meaningful part in Martha's growth.

Jack, a high school senior, in a modern program of education may wish to do certain independent work as his part in preparation for a class discussion on Universal Military Training. Perhaps he will talk to the commander of the local post of the American Legion and other leading citizens in order to get their views. He will listen to appropriate programs on the radio. Naturally, he will utilize the resources of the school and public libraries. Current magazines will interest him. The discussion at the dinner table may suggest

possible approaches to the project. He may look into the history of nations that have tried conscription plans.

Homework may be the pursuit of individual interests through reading, listening to the radio, attending movies, even engaging in conversation. It may be development of appreciations or skills in music, fine arts, or the practical arts. It may include leather work and baking cookies, tennis and social dancing. There is no limit to the range of interesting experiences young people may engage in, each of which can make a wholesome contribution to their development. The homework assignments will be made by the students themselves with the guidance of their teachers and parents. By no means should all the assignments grow out of classroom experiences. Homework should supplement the work accomplished in school.

Dare anyone suggest that homework as herein defined need be boring to young people? Is such homework an encroachment upon a student's time? Is it not in keeping with the individual's growth through experiences that are lifelike and certainly within his comprehension since the pupil himself makes the choice?

Do those who fear that modern education will not prepare students for college have a better suggestion for training for research work and study than the cooperative guidance of teachers and parents in experiences that are real in terms of the mental, social, emotional, and physical development of children?

There are those in the teaching profession who will say that the plan for homework here presented is too idealistic and impracticable. In a stilted Victorian program of education this may have been true. In a truly modern program, quite the contrary. On the senior high school level, perhaps, the physics teacher, the French teacher, and the mathematics teacher may have to do some careful planning and evaluating with their students.

An assignment for home preparation of pages 82-87 in the textbook may not contribute as much to the total desirable growth of a teen-ager as many would like to believe. But those phases of each subject field which can be learned in lifelike situations, whether taught as a core program or in separate subject-matter compartments, offer alert teachers untold opportunities for guiding students into challenging experiences. Such experiences will be so interesting to them that homework of a type that is meaningful to the learners will then be inspired by interest, not assignment.

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CHAPTER XVII

ADMINISTERING THE HEALTH PROGRAM

That the school should share a responsibility for the continuing optimum health of the school population, seems to be unquestioned. The administration must cooperate, coordinate, organize, and see executed the various parts of the health program. In this as in other areas the role of the school is continually expanding. The provision for this aspect of the educational program may be aided by the following references.

Guiding Principles of the Health Program[1]

The school has set for its objective the education of the whole child. The health, mental and physical, of the child is the single most important factor in that development. The most crucial point of a health program is that it shall be an integral part of the total curriculum. More than any other "subject" it should enter into the planning of every moment and every phase of the school living. The various phases of the health program must be unified and mutually contributory. The health instruction must make the health service more educative and factors from the latter should make a basis for further teaching. This is true also with

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[1]J. M. Lee and D. M. Lee, The Child and His Curriculum (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940), pp. 491-492.

physical education. Acknowledgment and appreciation of the physical conditions of the school building such as sanitation, heating, lighting, and ventilating, will enrich the pupil's background and develop attitudes and habits which will assist in the maintenance of good conditions.

Health is among the newest subjects to be added to the school offerings, and very few systems have as yet a comprehensive plan. Consequently, much time and planning are needed to develop the program. There are certain basic principles on which the school may formulate its program.

1. It must be an integral part of the regular curriculum program.
2. It should be built on the philosophy that health is a way of living mentally, emotionally, socially, and physically. It must grow out of and be a part of all child experiences in school, home, and community.
3. Health information, habits, and attitudes to be effective must be acquired from purposeful functioning situations.
4. The objective should not be just good health but the most vital and best health possible for each child.
5. Health and physical education should be conceived, planned, and executed as one program, remembering the significance of adequate health and physical service, health and physical instruction, and provision of conditions necessary for health and growth.
6. Health is that condition in which the mind, body, and spirit are working efficiently toward the realization of the fullest possible life.
7. Health education is the sum of all experiences within the school and in life outside which affect

meanings, attitudes, and habits relating to individual and community health.

8. Every activity in the school curriculum has its health implications. Each should be so directed that these implications are clearly understood and utilized both by teachers and pupils.

9. Since conduct is the desired end; knowledge and meanings are the means to an end. These should, therefore, not be taught in isolation from the experiences out of which they arise and in which they are to be applied.

10. The teacher and the child should think of health as a matter of conduct, not as content of instruction.

11. Special health periods devoted to direct health teachings should arise out of special needs or be the outcome of some school activity. These periods should always result in the application of learnings obtained in other relationships.

12. The environment for health education is broader than the curriculum of the school. It extends to buildings, equipment, administration, and the entire life of the child, since they make possible the situations for desirable practices.

13. Evaluation of the health program and of pupil progress should be in terms of improved physical, mental, moral, and social behavior, and the opportunities provided for healthful practices.

14. The entire school personnel has a decided responsibility for, and must cooperate in, taking advantage of the many possibilities favorably affecting the health behavior of school children.

Administrative Essentials of the Health Program[1]

Regardless of where the administration of the school health program may be placed, the administrator will be faced with certain essentials in conducting his department:

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[1]L. B. Chenoweth and T. K. Selkirk, School Health Problems (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1937), pp. 348-349.

1. There are legal provisions and requirements concerning school health which must be respected.

2. The distribution of the budget will be of prime importance.

3. Organization may be centralized, decentralized, or functional.

4. The personnel with its training, experience, and adaptability to the work at hand will require constant consideration.

5. Provisions must be made for sanitation of the school plant and grounds.

6. Health services must be provided. The place of the physician, dentist, and public health nurse in the school health program will have to be determined.

7. Health instruction, curriculum construction, and correlation of health with other subjects will need thoughtful planning.

8. The relation of physical education to health education must be recognized.

9. The bearing of the activities program on health will arise for decision.

10. Special health measures such as sight-saving classes, speech correction classes, provisions for crippled children, nutrition program will require careful adaptation to the health program.

11. The teachers' health must be safeguarded.

12. Complete records and reports are essential to efficient administration.

13. Office management conditions the smoothness with which the administrative machinery performs.

14. Criteria of effectiveness of the school health program will be demanded by health and educational authorities.

Certain cardinal principles of sound administration are applicable to school health as well as to any other forms

of organization. These may be listed briefly:

1. Centralized authority with line and staff responsibilities clearly defined has proved to be most effective.
2. Personnel should be well trained and experienced.
3. Frequent staff meetings keep members informed of changes in program and advances in techniques.
4. Functional divisions of work facilitate carrying out the program.
5. Effective routines should be established.
6. Overlappings and duplication should be avoided.
7. A systematic and convenient record system and adequate reports are necessary.
8. Critical analysis of results assists in correcting deficiencies and in adapting the program to changing conditions.

The effectiveness of administration of the school health program is difficult to measure statistically but may be judged in general by the improvement in health and well-being of the children and in their attitudes and health habits. The following are some of the ways and means which have been suggested to judge such effectiveness:

1. Reduction of absenteeism due to acute communicable diseases.
2. Reduction in morbidity and mortality among school children.
3. Reduction in number of accidents.
4. Correction of remediable defects.
5. Improvement in nutritional status.

6. Improvement in health habits, attitudes, and ideals of health.

7. Better adjustment of the child to the school program.

8. Increased confidence and interest of parents in health supervision and health education and in carrying out recommendations of the school health staff.

9. Increased interest and cooperation on the part of teachers.

10. Better correlation of health work with other subjects and activities of the school.

Health Responsibility of the School Administrator[1]

On the lowest level of executive practice, the chief school administrator merely carries out the routine provisions adopted by the board of education. On the highest level of professional endeavor he, as the educational expert, advises and encourages the board to adopt policies aimed to improve the health of school children.

In fact the primary responsibility for the successful functioning of the school-health program rests with the administrator. He must accept this responsibility with an intelligent understanding of health problems, the aims and purposes of education, and the precise way in which effective health education contributes to the total program designed for the schools. He must provide the necessary resources in terms of

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[1]Clifford L. Brownell, Principles of Health Education Applied (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949), pp. 138-139.

personnel, equipment, facilities, and time within the school day. In planning the various activities that comprise the program and in the evaluation of their results, he must give forceful though democratic leadership.

Almost without exception the quality of the school-health program reflects the facility of the chief school administrator. Many efficient school superintendents have established reasonably good school-health programs, even when forced by circumstances to accept subordinate personnel of mediocre professional qualifications. On the other hand, few health programs achieve success without the sympathetic and wise direction of a strong and intelligent chief school administrator, irrespective of the qualifications of those employed actually to conduct the program. Observations clearly indicate the splendid results obtainable by the combination of an enlightened administration and efficient health personnel.

The need becomes more and more evident for a competent school-health administrator. Even though the board of education decides to establish an administrative organization which makes health education a component of physical education, someone should assume the specific responsibility for directing the school-health program.

The numerous aspects of the program, involving articulation of several subject-matter areas and services together

with the coordination of many community activities emphasize the need for a school-health coordinator or supervisor with a broad background of preparation and experience. First of all he must be an educator who understands the basic principles associated with the proper conduct of schools and supports in theory and practice the tenets of a functional curriculum. Next to a broad preparation in general education comes the necessity for thorough preparation in health education which includes understanding of the various activities conducted by the school and their precise contribution to complete education. Finally, the health supervisor or coordinator must appreciate the interrelationships--either stated or implied--between school health and activities normally sponsored by other official organizations, voluntary agencies, private enterprise, and professional associations. Obviously his ability to work with people and to command their respect and assistance deserves honorable mention.

In the well-organized school or college, the health expert assists the administration by recommending for adoption various policies affecting the welfare of the program, and in planning activities aimed to yield maximum results.

The Principal's Part in the Program for Health[1]

Attention has been called previously to the lack of coordination between the various aspects of the program for health. It is not uncommon to find elementary schools in which health instruction is given according to systematically outlined courses of study the contents of which are quite unrelated to the immediate health needs of the children. Likewise physical education activities do not take into account the existing physical characteristics and needs of children. These conditions exist in spite of the fact that the health-service department collects and has available extensive data regarding the health conditions and health habits of children. It would seem, therefore, that the foremost responsibility of the principal with reference to the program for health is to coordinate the work of the various departments or units within the school which have to do with health. Administrative procedures must be instituted which will make it convenient and possible at all times for the classroom teacher, the physical-education teacher, the school nurse and physician, the mental hygienist, the visiting teacher, and others who deal with the physical, mental, or social health of children to cooperate and to coordinate their efforts.

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[1]Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1944), pp. 433-435.

It is generally recognized that the principal is responsible for initiating and developing in local school units systematic programs of one kind or another. Whether a particular project is worked out in only a given school or whether it is an integral part of a city-wide program, the responsibility for its development rests largely with the principal. If a systematic, coordinated course of instruction in health and safety education is to find expression in the school, the principal must be in a position to lead the way and to help teachers in effecting the proposed plans. Suggestive outlines, courses of study, methods of procedure, and specific objectives for various age groups are available and may be utilized.

To make the classroom instruction in health effective, it is essential that the teachers be furnished with an abundance of health materials. Invariably the principal can be of great assistance in familiarizing teachers with materials and in securing for them not only the materials which can be obtained through regular requisition from the central office but also the wealth of materials which are usable for health teaching issued by the various public, social, and commercial agencies. Much of this material in the form of posters, folders, and pamphlets is free or inexpensive. Health articles from newspapers and magazines are frequently very helpful in stimulating the interest of children in good health. Health clubs and interclass projects and contests, individual health

charts, posters prepared by pupils, and individual progress records are used to advantage in some schools.

A fourth responsibility of the principal with reference to the health program has to do with the making of periodic health surveys. Some health-survey techniques have been suggested in the above paragraphs, and others may be found in professional literature. Such surveys render great service in familiarizing pupils and teachers with the actual status of health practices and in providing excellent bases for an immediate program for improvement of the health program in the school.

Prevention and control of contagious diseases is often considered the major function of the school physician. The principal, however, must assume the responsibility for identifying cases of suspected contagion and for securing their examination by the school physician. To accomplish this a thorough system of daily inspection of pupils by teachers is essential. Teachers must be assisted in their efforts and trained in techniques for detecting the chief signs of illness in children. Suspected cases must be handled with dispatch. The principal will need to devise forms for use in sending children to the school physician or nurse for inspection, for excusing children from school attendance, and for checking their return to classes after exclusion.

Previously in this chapter attention was called to the

fact that health education is the sum of experiences in school and elsewhere which favorably influence individual, community, and racial health. Obviously the curriculum in health for the child extends far beyond the confines of the school. The conditions of the neighborhood, various types of community recreation centers, and the conditions of and the practices in the home have significant relationships to the development of health habits and knowledges on the part of the child and determine in part the effectiveness of the school program. To secure the sympathetic support of the public for the health program the school is sponsoring, and to secure the necessary cooperation of parents and the various community agencies, it is essential that the principal take a leading part in making the program for child health not merely a school project but a community project. To this end the principal must establish cordial relations with the community organizations and agencies and with parents through mother's clubs of the parent-teacher association. The importance of these community contacts cannot be overstressed since they determine in no small measure the effectiveness of the school health program.

Of no less importance than his other responsibilities regarding the program for health is the principal's duty so to organize his office that the effective administration of the health program is possible. Procedures must be outlined for excusing pupils from school for minor ills when the school

physician and nurse are absent, for administering first-aid when accidents occur, and for the admission of pupils who have been absent on account of illness or quarantine. Record forms must be provided and kept up to date. Procedures should also be established whereby the school physician and nurse may go about their duties with a minimum of interruption of class work and at the same time permit the maximum of health service for the pupils. Of equal importance is the development of procedures whereby the data gathered by the health-service department are made readily available to those giving health instruction and to those in charge of physical education activities.

Coordination of Health Agencies[1]

It is necessary only to look at the overlapping of responsibilities of agencies in a typical community to see the importance and practical necessity of coordination. The school system is concerned with the health education of adults as well as of children. Both the school superintendent and the health officer seek to promote and protect the health of pupils and teachers. The school system wants a quality of school housekeeping which will protect health and facilitate schoolwork. It looks to city health, police, and fire depart-

[1] Health in Schools, Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association (Washington: The Association, 1942), pp. 298-300.

ments for maintaining sanitation and safety, but it cannot legally or morally delegate its responsibility in these areas.

The school has within its own hands the opportunity and responsibility for so organizing its program that teachers and children have a healthful school program. On the other hand, it is equally concerned with protection against communicable diseases which, by law, is a responsibility of the local health department. It seeks to help the child improve his physical and mental health and to avoid placing burdens upon him which he is physically or mentally unable to bear. But in achieving both these objectives it may look to the family physician or to a physician furnished through the department of health as well as to the school physician. It would be ideal if every child received adequate medical attention from the private physician. But many children because of poverty or ignorance at home do not secure adequate medical and dental care, and schools have taken the responsibility of finding the needs of the child and, where necessary, the further responsibility of helping these children to obtain medical attention from suitable nonschool agencies.

The local health department exists to protect and promote the health of all citizens, including school children. It is concerned with the healthfulness of the school environment as it is with the whole problem of environmental sanita-

tion in the community. It has an obligation either to inspect the sanitary conditions of schools or to assure itself that satisfactory inspection is being made. In a somewhat comparable way the police and fire departments are concerned with safety in schools. Similarly, the health department cannot delegate its responsibility for communicable disease control. It may approve a program of communicable disease control carried out by school personnel or it may operate its own program with the cooperation of the schools, but final responsibility rests upon the department of health.

Home interests and responsibilities for the health of the child underlie the work of both the school system and the health department. The home is the primary social unit; it has the primary responsibility. If the family lives hygienically and secures adequate health guidance from the family physician, the work of both the schools and the health department is greatly reduced. Life in the family has already determined the mental and physical health of the child before he enters the school. His health as well as his education are joint responsibilities of the home and the state, demanding cooperative and coordinated effort. Because physicians and dentists provide health care and guidance for the family they are vitally important in any program of community health.

Relief agencies become concerned with the health of children whenever the home finds itself financially unable to

meet its health obligations to the child. The school is not a relief agency but an educational agency. It does not properly operate clinics or feed children from the school budget, but it is concerned with securing the appropriate use of these agencies by school children.

Many private or volunteer health agencies, representing the best citizens of the community, are concerned with health problems which touch school children. Tuberculosis associations are concerned with the high case-rate at the teen age, particularly among girls, and they recognize the importance education plays in the whole program of tuberculosis prevention. The American Red Cross is interested in improving the quality of home nursing and first-aid. The safety council, in its promotion of safety, finds that much of its program must be directed to the school-age children. Parent-teacher organizations have established programs to detect and correct the defects of preschool children and to build community support for the initiation and conduct of a good school health program. The county medical and dental societies often cooperate in outlining a health plan, in providing examinations, and in obtaining the necessary corrective services.

A democratic society should not minimize the importance of these and other local groups which are concerned either with the solution of some special health problem or

with the general welfare of the community. These organizations naturally will be interested in coordinating their programs with the school health program. When they are under wise leadership, they will not expect to superimpose their own program upon the schools from the outside. Obviously, any school system which opens its doors to a variety of independent and disassociated programs coming in from the outside will so disorganize the educational process that it cannot effectively serve the child. Coordination of effort and cooperation in the conduct of sound programs, on the other hand, would seem desirable.

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CHAPTER XVIII

THE PROGRAM OF ACTIVITIES

Whether extra or intra curricular, the program of activities has a definite place in today's education for all American youth. The learn-by-doing philosophy is finding a place in traditional as well as progressive schools. Active living situations under proper guidance have provided and are providing invaluable experience for student development. Coordination of this program is the responsibility of the principal. The principal or an appointed member of the faculty will be responsible for control and direction of the program. However, this does not preclude teacher or pupil participation in the organization and management of the activities.

Curricular and Extra-Curricular Activities[1]

Extra-curricular activities are those legitimate school activities not provided for in the regular program of studies. They vary from school to school and from year to year within a single school. Some extra-curricular activities have been curricularized in recent years. It seems that extra-curricular activities are contributing more than curricular subjects to the seven objectives of education. In view of this fact it seems that many of the extra-curricular activities are the fundamentals of education and that

[1]C. R. Maxwell, and L. R. Kilzer, High School Administration (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran, and Company, Inc., 1936), pp. 159-160.

some parts of poorly adapted curricular subjects really constitute the frills of education. Every high-school teacher is expected to take some part in the direction of extra-curricular activities whether his contract specifically states this fact or not. Special training should be required in one or more extra-curricular activities. School time is being devoted, with approval, to extra-curricular activities in many progressive high schools today. If these activities require a large amount of time the teacher's regular teaching load should be reduced accordingly. As a general rule, extra-curricular activities should be carried on at the school rather than elsewhere. No activity should be permitted which does not have the approval of the principal, for he is responsible to the superintendent and the board of education for the conduct of the high school. Membership in the extra-curricular activities of the school should be determined on a democratic basis and fraternities and sororities should not be tolerated in high school.. By means of pure-point systems, or a major-and-minors plan, participation in these activities may be both required and limited. By means of a sliding scale in point systems the pupils whose scholarship records are high are permitted to participate in more activities than the pupils who have poor scholarship records, but no pupil is deprived of all participation because of low grades. An approved system of financial accounting is essential, but each activity need not necessarily pay its own way.

Some of the most common and most important of the many extra-curricular activities: the home room, participation in government, assemblies, clubs, mixers, hikes and picnics, big brothers and big sisters, honor socieities, dramatics, athletics, publications, and commencements.

General Principles Underlying the Administration of a Program of Activities[1]

1. The pupil is the center around which, and for which, all educational activity is organized.

2. The units of activities selected should be only such as to meet the following tests:
   a. They must arise out of, or find their justification in, the natural or acquired interests of the pupil.
   b. They must meet definite needs of individuals and groups of individuals.
   c. They must be readily adapted to the abilities and aptitudes of pupils of varying degrees of preparation or previous training in particular kinds of activities.
   d. They must, if possible, idealize life activities.

3. The organization of the units of activities should provide for the following conditions:
   a. The program of activities and the program of studies should supplement each other in the total school program.
   b. Definite provision should be made for common and peculiar needs of various individuals and groups of individuals.
   c. The form of organization should be subordinate to its fundamental spirit and should be determined largely by the pupils as they develop the need for, and interest in, definite organization.

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[1]E. D. Grizzell, "The Administration of Student Activities in the Secondary School," Educational Outlook I (March, 1927), 115-122.

d. The program of activities should be organized in such manner as to provide as fully as possible for training in leadership and followership, as well as in other important social and individual qualities.
e. The daily schedule should include units of activities as well as subjects of instruction. The same care should be used in making adjustments to meet individual needs for activities as for the formal school subjects.

4. The management of the program of activities should be in accordance with the following principles:
   a. Every effort should be made to develop definite relationships between the program of studies and the program of activities.
   b. Procedure in the management of the program of activities should provide for as free participation as possible that the spontaneity of those participating may not be destroyed.
   c. Pupils and faculty and other personnel should cooperate freely in the management of all school activities.
   d. No student should be penalized in his participation in activities merely as a spur to improvement in the formal work of the school.
   e. Limitation as to membership, office holding, and other such matters should be based upon needs of pupils, not upon scholarship in the abstract.
   f. Successful participation in any unit of activity should receive proper recognition. A system of awards of a graduated character is to be preferred to a system of marks and credits. Such facts should be made a part of the school records.

5. The supervision, testing, and improvement of procedures should conform to the following principles:
   a. In every secondary school an expert supervisor should be placed in charge of the program of activities. His chief function should be to coordinate the program of studies and the program of activities.
   b. The supervisor or director of activities, together with the various members of the staff acting as sponsors, should develop a technique, standards of achievement, and when possible, tests to determine the efficiency of the various units of activities in the program.

c. All supervision of activities should be so conducted that the maximum of interest of the students may be maintained.
d. In the improvement of the program of activities it is essential that the development be gradual, starting with the pupils at whatever level of achievement they may be capable. Progress must always be in terms of the ability of the pupil to progress; no other procedure is in accord with the principles of democracy.

6. A system of adequate and accurate records and reports must recognize the following requirements:
   a. An analysis of the program of activities is essential in order that the significant elements to be recorded and reported may be determined.
   b. An adequate system of records and reports that includes the essential facts concerning all elements.
   c. An accurate system of records and reports must be objective, and specific.
   d. A system of records and reports must provide for a continuous record of comparable facts.

7. The improvement of personnel is essential to a full recognition of the fundamental principles of administration. Specifically the following principles must be recognized:
   a. The first step in the improvement of personnel involves care in the selection of the various types of personnel.
   b. Improvement of personnel requires that every activity performed shall be educative to the person performing the activity.
   c. Fitness for the task is determined by the initial ability to succeed and improvement in service.

8. The improvement of material requires that fundamental changes be made in school plant and equipment. The following principles are involved:
   a. The selection of the site and the planning and construction of the school plant should recognize the demands of the program of activities.
   b. Improvement of material is absolutely essential to the development of the program of activities.

9. The program of activities should be definitely related to the life of the community in order that it may serve as the connecting link between the school and life.

10. The program of activities should be fully supported by the school from the general funds. The present practice of non-support of activities by the school requires that the following principles be recognized:
    a. A budget system is a necessary feature of a sound system of finance.
    b. All financial activities shall receive careful supervision in accord with the educational values to be derived by the pupil from participation in financial affairs.
    c. A school treasury should be provided for the handling of all funds to be deposited by the various school organizations.
    d. Educational purposes should never be subordinated to financial ends.

Integration of Curriculum and Extra-Curriculum[1]

Some educators believe that the interests of education would be best served if the extra-curricular were absorbed and made a part of the curriculum. Thus they believe that the curriculum would be strengthened by reason of the provisions for greater pupil initiative, spontaneity, pupil planning, responsibility and interest. It is also believed that if extra-curricular activities were absorbed by the curriculum, they would be better adapted to educational objectives, would reach more students, would involve less duplication, and would be less likely to involve activity of little or negative educational value. Already progress in this direction has been

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[1]Harl R. Douglass, (ed.), The High School Curriculum (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), pp. 374-376.

made in the field of English with dramatics, public speaking, and journalism, and in music with bands, orchestras, and glee clubs.

Several dangers and limitations exist in the integration of the curriculum and the extra-curriculum. Some activities do not seem to fit into any subject; some cut across several subjects; and some, probably, should be on the elective and volunteer basis, rather than be a required part of a subject. It is also apparent that there would arise in many classes the problem of finding sufficient time for both the present content of the curriculum and associated extra-curricular activities in addition. The solution might be, however, that with less necessity for spending time on the extra-curriculum the student might carry more subjects each year, or more time to be given to each subject.

Perhaps the greatest objection or danger is that the two kinds of educational activities are essentially different with respect to their general principles and atmosphere and call for such a shift or change of pace from one to the other as to tax the flexibility and versatility of many teachers. The very essence of the extra-curriculum is pupil leadership, initiative, spontaneity, and responsibility. As a part of the classroom curriculum under many teachers, much of these characteristics and values may be lost. While the temptation to associate the activities with procedures of assignments,

recitations, compulsion, testing, and marking is not inevitable, it would probably happen in a great many instances.

It would seem that for some time to come, and in the light of the general attitudes and practices of teachers and other difficulties and limitations, both principles should be followed--one with some activities and the other with others; for example, with respect to public speech, dramatics, and journalism, many of the activities might be shifted to English classes. Though not likely to happen soon in many schools, the absorption of athletics into the physical education program and the consequent withdrawal from the field of commercialized recreation would be a very important step forward educationally. Subject-matter clubs might well be incorporated as a part of the related subject, e.g., the Spanish Club in the Spanish class, though here important difficulties quickly present themselves which lead one to entertain somewhat favorably the idea that these student activities should be on the voluntary basis and with membership of fewer than all enrolled in the subject class.

No doubt, many activities could be absorbed only with difficulty as a glance at the list of clubs appearing earlier in this chapter will suggest; e.g., the Hi-Y, Girls' Reserve, the chess and checker club, the stamp and coin club, the Newman club, and others with membership certain not to correspond with the membership of any class and with very special and limited objectives.

Responsibility for the Activity Program[1]

Most administrators and teachers are agreed that a satisfactory program can be achieved only when the responsibility for its control and direction is clearly defined and centered in a particular person. This responsibility can be either retained by the principal or delegated by him to an administrative assistant or member of the faculty. The final responsibility and authority, however, must remain with the principal, since he is charged with the entire educational program and must answer to the superintendent for the actions of all agents and agencies operating under his leadership. In small school systems, the superintendent or supervising principal will retain final authority in matters affecting the administration of the program. Centralization of responsibility, in any case, does not preclude teacher and pupil participation in the organization and management of the program. As a matter of fact, teacher and pupils should play a prominent part in planning and carrying out the program. To do this successfully, the principal, his assistant, or the faculty director of the program must be willing to delegate full responsibility within assigned limits to faculty advisers and students. They must be given the right to plan the program, to make decisions that count, and to carry out the details

[1]Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, The Teacher and School Organization (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), pp. 363-364.

of the program. Unless this condition prevails, interest wanes, learning opportunities are lost, and support for the program suffers accordingly. Usually, when programs lack faculty and student enthusiasm, or they are engaged in perfunctorily, the cause can be found in the policies followed by the principal of the school. He is either indifferent to the program, ignorant of its potential possibilities, inconsistent in his actions regarding it, or definitely unwilling to relinquish any administrative control over its development and operation. Some principals guard so zealously their authority as head of the school that they overlook, in this petty devotion to a power complex, the real reason why schools exist. Many of them never learn that the only true path to functional learning on the part of boys and girls in school is through the realness of the experiences that are provided for them.

Some Criteria for Evaluating a Program of Activities[1]

A theory has been advanced recently by students of education that perhaps the school's activity program comes more nearly supplying the basic educational needs of students than does the regular academic course. The various elements of general education which are intended as the core of our

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[1]Adolph Unruh, "Some Criteria for Evaluating a Program of Activities," School Activities, XXI (September, 1949), 3-4.

educational program are well served and developed in the activity program.

This program is no longer regarded as an extra. It probably provides the best experiences in the entire curriculum from the viewpoint of training boys and girls in the techniques of getting along with one another. Many important, interesting lessons of lasting value are learned in the activities.

A program that will do all the things for students that are presently claimed for the activity program must be organized and administered according to well developed plans. The following criteria represent a standard against which the principal, activity director, or supervisor may evaluate his school's program. . . .

One, the program should be based upon the student's fundamental needs. Although this may sound strange to some, the activity program should meet the needs in the following five classifications: biological, social, educational, vocational, and ethical. From the standpoint of biological needs, care should be exercised in planning games, sports, athletic contests in keeping with the demands of the physical qualifications and limitations of the group. The activity should promote health. Regard should be had for such experiences as rest, relaxation, refreshments, muscular development, habits and skills demanded for the development of health and

physical vigor.

In similar fashion the program must provide for the social needs; meeting and getting along with people; providing for social intercourse; planning and developing opportunities for learning some of the social graces. Then, the activities and experiences must be of an enlightening nature, elevating, cultural, giving opportunity for growth. Also some activities should carry information of vocational nature, explaining problems, describing the vocations, and giving occupational information and guidance. These are some of the fundamental needs of students, and each of them must be served if the program is to be a complete well-rounded experience.

Two, the program should be inclusive. It should include any and all of the school personnel, students, teachers, and depending upon the activity, the janitor, clerks, maintenance men, and others. The program must recognize individual differences, seasonal variations in the activities that are possible. The program must include a variety of things to do. There should be a balanced school program including a balance of various activities, but also a variety for each student. In general, it should serve the differentiative function in education.

Three, the program must be democratic in administration and outcomes. The atmosphere of participation must be optimum and agreeable. School morale is involved. The goals

and techniques of citizenship should be constantly before the sponsors, administrators, and students, all of whom are participators. There should be no physical restrictions imposed except as developed by the groups themselves. There should be freedom of activity, movement, and motion. The meeting place should have cultural and social significance and possibilities for modification permitting expression on the part of the group.

Four, the program should articulate with the community needs. There should be free and unhampered use of community and school facilities. Provision must be made for out-of-school youth. The program should foster school-community relations. There should be free use of community personnel, authorities, and experts. The right of students to participate and share in the life and culture of the community cannot be denied. The school's program must supplement and complement those of the other agencies and institutions found in the area.

Five, if the activity program is not the sole educational program, as it might be for some, then it must supplement the school's curricular offerings. The educational values of the activity program are of great importance. There are vocational values as indicated above. Also there are other values not indicated in the first criterion as for example, leisure-time activity, recreational learnings and

values, and psychological values. The latter include the prevention of delinquency, drop-outs, maladjustments among youth and in some of these cases there may be therapeutical values. And last but not least are the values of creativeness.

Six, the program must be properly and adequately supervised and sponsored. The rules for the selection of sponsors can be found in numerous books in education and those found in Dr. McKown's book are especially good.[1] Here should be added some further points. Sponsorship may be delegated to responsible outsiders in such cases which involve the out-of-school youth, and especially when vocational and social values are perhaps the outstanding considerations. The use of school buildings and facilities should be permitted with but few exceptions. It would be good public relations if many of the meetings of the community could be held at the school buildings. School use should be given preference, of course. And this following statement is one which if followed would have far reaching consequences: Every person capable of teaching should be capable of sponsoring a group or an activity. Furthermore, every teacher should seek and should have the opportunity to broaden her educational experiences and her techniques of leadership in this fashion.

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[1]Harry C. McKown, Extra-Curricular Activities (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1927).

Seven, the program should provide opportunities to learn to participate through participation. In this sense participation should include the mechanisms known as cooperation, competition, and accomodation. There should be provided with conscious intent some opportunities to participate in the areas of activity common to humanity. These would include social, political, economic, spiritual, and aesthetic activities and experiences.

Eight, the program should provide education for leadership. There should be an analysis and discussion of, and a practice in the techniques of leading. Opportunities should consciously be created to give everyone an opportunity to take the role of leadership. The political implements of initiative, referendum, recall, petition and others are based on the development of the leadership qualities in common man. The activity program is the best place for the development of these qualities.

Nine, such a program should have guidance values. The guidance function of education can operate at times to the best advantage in this program. The personal relations between leader and student, teacher and student, school and student are informal, positive, and constructive. In most cases rapport has already been established and that puts this program one step in advance of the routinized, planned, and scheduled conference. It has naturally the relationships

coveted by the experts for their counselors. Perhaps the guidance people should examine carefully this area for the further possibilities of their type of service.

Ten, this program should serve the function of retention. It should have the effect of helping to hold youth in school; more youth for a longer period. Participation in activities is so valuable that it must not be made contingent or dependent upon grades in the academic program. It is time the academic program stood on its own merits, or undergo the modification necessary to make it possible for it to do so. The activity program is an experience program and if conducted according to the other criteria listed here it will serve the integrative function.

Eleven, the activity program must be recognized as an integral part of the school program and the life of the student. Therefore it should be given school time. It should be given financial support in the school budget. Fees, dues, and admission charges to programs should be reduced to a bare minimum, and preferably to nothing. The rule of passing in three solids should be changed to read "Enrolled in the school." Portions of the program may not be given school time, however, due to the variety of interests of students and teachers, and especially is this true in the case of out-of-school youth. Nevertheless, there are other ways of recognizing the activity program such as making the building

available; recognizing sponsorship in the teaching load; encouraging the leaders; and assisting with the planning; also in other ways.

Twelve, there must be an evaluation program. It should be cooperatively developed. It should include students, teachers, administrators, parents, and graduates. In short, it should include a representation of all the people in the community which is served by the school. If it is to amount to anything, the evaluation must be continuous. Finally the evaluation should lead to action. There may be indicated expansion, revision, or reorganization, but unless it leads to some further action, evaluation should not be initiated.

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CHAPTER XIX

SUPPLIES AND MATERIALS

The principal must augment the teaching procedure with all possible supplies and materials. This requires planning and organization in order to avoid the "too little and too late" logistic practice. As well as better supply, there may be effected efficiencies and a release of funds for other necessities of the school. Suggestions in this important supporting function of administration may be found in the following notes.

Provision of Teaching Materials[1]

The service of textbooks and supplies, although an important activity in the operation of the public schools, represents a field of great neglect. The textbook is the most important teaching tool of the American teacher. The quality and standards of textbook publishing are high, and sufficient emphasis can bring to every American school satisfactory equipment in textual, reference, and library books, instructional and operating supplies.

The concept that the value of public education is increased for the parent by forcing him to purchase books and supplies is responsible for this condition. If layman

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[1]Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940), p. 449.

and educator would reorient their concept of public education from a "free" process to a cooperative community service for which all the people pay, it might be possible to spend two to three cents of the operating dollar to secure adequate textbooks and supplies. There is little merit in the conventional opposition to textbooks and supplies furnished by the school system. In fact, the continuation of this tradition decreases the efficiency of instruction. It would be difficult to estimate how much money is wasted annually in instruction because of inadequate supplementary tools. Much of the instructional dollar is considerably depreciated in terms of results because of poor books, supplies, and equipment.

Every state has provided for some regulation of the textbook and in twenty-five states uniform adoption is required by law. Two states publish their own books. Since flexibility in adoption and adjustment to varying conditions is necessary, uniform state adoptions cannot be viewed as contributing to the general efficiency of instruction.

Standards of quality for textbooks and supplies can be determined only through objective research under classroom conditions. In this process the teacher should play an ever-increasing part. There is no place for politics in this service. The only defensible criterion is the need of the instructional program and the teacher.

There is a general trend toward improvement in textbook and supply service. Board of education members are interfering less frequently with the purely technical executive activity. The board of education should approve standards of quality and distribution, but with these safeguards the actual process of operation may be easily delegated to competent professionals. Careful distinction should be made between the act of preparing standards of quality and quantity and the service act for satisfying these needs. The first is essentially an instructional responsibility, while the second is a routine staff activity.

Some Common Supply Problems[1]

Problems of several kinds may arise in connection with the furnishing of supplies, textbooks, and equipment.

1. The requisitioning and purchasing of texts, supplies, and apparatus may be lavish and unwise, resulting in the deterioration or waste of material, unnecessary current expenditures, and much duplication of effort in checking and re-checking of inventories.

2. A penurious and expensive policy of purchasing in small quantities only what is sure to be needed immediately may be followed, with the result that supplementary and emergency purchases at high retail prices have to be rushed through during the school term.

3. Supplies are sometimes ordered altogether in terms of previous needs or of antiquated requisition sheets

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[1] P. W. L. Cox, and R. E. Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision (New York: American Book Company, 1934), pp. 152-153.

which curriculum changes, shifts in electives, the preferences of new teachers, or the change in school policies make unsatisfactory or unnecessary.

4. Changes in accessories based on mere whim or fancy or prejudice are sometimes sanctioned, even when there are on hand supplies, texts, or apparatus that might serve the purposes reasonably well. While consideration must be given to the decrease in efficiency which may result from thwarting the preferences of the teacher, insistence on thrift is necessary.

5. Inadequate inventories, or even the inexcusable failure to consult the inventory sheets when making out requisition lists for orders, result in unnecessary purchases of new material, or sometimes, the neglect to purchase fundamental supplies not specifically asked for by teachers or janitors.

6. Supply rooms are often inadequate as to space, shelving, lighting, and protection from dust, resulting in confusion, waste, and deterioration of stock.

Variety of Supplies and Materials[1]

A school system should use as few kinds of supplies for a particular service, grade, or subject as possible; in other words, the type and quality of each supply should be standardized for the whole school system. For example, whenever possible there should be only one, or a few, kinds of penmanship paper, of blackboard crayons, of ink, and of other supplies for a particular grade or a department. An adoption of the practice just suggested will enable school systems to

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[1]Ward G. Reeder, The Fundamentals of Public School Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937), pp. 280-282.

purchase their supplies in larger quantities, thus making it possible to effect a considerable saving in price; the quantity of any particular item of material, rather than assortment of items, is the basis on which vendors quote prices and sell materials. Moreover, the use of the practice suggested will make the administration of supplies much easier; for example, it is much easier to purchase, to requisition, to deliver, and to account for only one type of penmanship paper than to perform these necessary functions for several types of paper. Carrying standardization too far, however, often results in handicapping service, and that should never be done. If, for example, the blackboards of the various schools will not permit the same kind of chalk to be used, as many kinds of chalk as are necessary should be purchased. Moreover, a supply item which may be appropriate for a certain grade may not be appropriate for another grade.

Every school system, particularly if it is large, should maintain a standard supply list. This list should give the name of each supply item which is used in the school system, and should also indicate the subjects, the grades, and the departments in which the item is used. The supply list is much more usable if it is divided into grades and departments; thus, it is helpful to have a supply list for each of the elementary school grades, and other lists for special departments such as health, manual training, special education,

office, library, janitorial, and home economics. It will be necessary to keep the list up-to-date as changes in the kind of supplies are made from year to year. A supply which was at one time the best is not necessarily always the best; the type and the quality of supplies change from year to year the same as school needs change.

The quality of supplies for a particular service should be good enough to meet the demands of the service, but since most supplies are used only once or a few times, the quality does not need to be higher than that. For example, since penmanship paper is usually destroyed as soon as the penmanship lesson is over, the cheapest paper that will stand the test should be purchased. If the retention of the material for any length of time is required, a better quality should be provided. Unfortunately little experimentation has yet been done to ascertain the best kind of supply for a particular service; here is another fruitful field for research and investigation.

Some of the more progressive school systems have appointed a committee, or committees, or assist in determining the kind of supplies to be used. On such committee, or committees, there should be representatives of the employees most vitally concerned in using the supplies. Thus, on the committee for educational supplies there should be representatives of the employees most vitally concerned in using

the supplies. Thus, on the committee for educational supplies there should be representatives of the purchasing department, of the teachers, of the principals, and of the supervisors; likewise on the committee for janitorial supplies there should be representatives of the janitors, of the employees of the purchasing department, and possibly of the employees of other departments. Who should know more about the kind and the quality of supplies to be selected than those persons who use, or direct the use of, such supplies? Employees frequently complain, and justly so, about being compelled to use supplies which they have had no voice in selecting.

In purchasing supplies there should be cooperation between the purchasing department and the departments which will use the supplies. Thus, teachers should be consulted regarding the kind of supplies to be used under their direction; janitors should also have much to say about the type of supplies which is furnished them. On the other hand, the practice which obtains in some school systems of permitting each employee to order from the local merchant any material which he wants, without consulting school officials, should not be permitted. In no event should supplies be purchased until the persons who must use the supplies have been consulted. Storerooms, basements, and attics of school buildings are frequently cluttered with materials which have been purchased by purchasing department, yet which could not be used.

Steps in Providing Supplies and Materials[1]

The first step is to ascertain the number of pupils who will be enrolled in each class or subject for each grade. By computing the amount of materials from the standard distribution on a per-pupil basis, it will be possible to determine just what is required without the hazard of a guess or rough estimate.

The second step is to tabulate the total requirements for each item, deduct the inventory, and submit the computed amount to vendors on a bid form. This will permit purchasing in larger amounts so that advantage may be taken of quantity buying. After the bids have been compiled, they are reported to the Board of Education by the superintendent with recommendations for purchasing. After approval has been given, purchase orders are sent to vendors quoting the lowest prices for approved materials.

The third step is to check and inspect the materials as they are delivered to the central stockroom, to assure that quality and quantity are in conformity with specifications. Where delivery is made directly to the school or to the classroom, there is greater possibility of improper inspection. When the materials have been received in the central stockroom

[1]Materials of Instruction, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association (New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1935), pp. 127-128.

and approved, they are delivered to the schools in terms of requisitions which have been previously checked against the standard distributions to assure that no more is delivered than is specified on the distributions.

The fourth and very important step is the administration of materials within the classroom. This matter requires careful management on the part of the teacher to assure that all children receive the amount which is required for the particular activity in which they are engaged. If the matter is left entirely to the discretion of the child, considerable waste will result, but it is recommended that the actual administration be delegated to the students under teacher guidance. The teacher has many more important functions to perform in the way of stimulation, assistance, and interpretation, which would be neglected if her time were given over to passing out supplies and textbooks. This activity can better be delegated to the students, but some plan of budgeting should be developed to assure proper use. If this activity is to have any educational benefits to the child, he should be given the opportunity to participate in planning the activity rather than have it autocratically imposed upon him. After the plan has been adopted by the class, either they or the teacher can delegate the actual work of distribution to members of the class. If the plan calls for a system of accounting, it will provide

a valuable activity which will facilitate the work in arithmetic.

The recommendations which have been presented are but suggestive and will require the working out of many details, through the cooperative efforts of all agents of the school system, in order to function properly. They represent desirable policies and suggest techniques which if put into effect will insure a more effective organization and management of materials than is practical generally, and will eliminate the present loss in instructional efficiency which has resulted from a lack of policy.

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CHAPTER XX

THE PRINCIPAL AS A PROFESSIONAL LEADER

As goes the administration, so goes the school, has been suggested by leading educators. The principal has a responsibility to nurture professional development in himself and in his staff. He should coordinate and integrate the group in providing an ever-improved program for student growth.

Central Role of the Principal In Leadership and Coordination[1]

During the present century, the elementary-school principalship has undergone significant changes, the net result of which has been to make this position one of the most important and significant administrative and supervisory posts in American education. Initially, the principal was merely a head teacher who was made responsible for certain routine administrative duties in addition to his teaching duties, and who was expected to assume a certain amount of responsibility relative to difficult disciplinary cases. With the trend toward larger elementary schools, it became common practice to relieve the principal of teaching duties. His duties were then redefined to include supervision along

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[1] A. F. Myers, et al., Cooperative Supervision in the Public Schools (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938), pp. 131-132.

with administration. Presently, it became apparent that supervisory effort in the elementary school was badly in need of coordination in the interest, first, of avoiding conflicting directions to teachers, and later, in the interest of achieving integration. Central-office supervisors tended to impose their program in their particular subjects upon all of the schools uniformly and without regard for the particular educational programs of those schools. It is now rather generally accepted in supervisory theory and practice that the principal is the educational leader of his school, and that all other supervisory officers whose work brings them into that school should be regarded as expert consultants and advisers of the principal, teachers, and pupils.

The rapid increase in the qualifications of teachers is having the effect of still further modifying the position and work of the principal. Formerly, a well-trained and experienced principal might truthfully say that he could go into any of his classrooms and show the teacher in charge how to do better the work she was doing. This is no longer true. Today, in our best school systems, the fourth-grade teacher knows more about teaching the fourth grade than the principal ever did or ever will know. The same is true of the other teachers. Under the conditions that prevailed formerly the principal was told that he should spend fifty per cent of his time in classroom visitation. This is no longer necessary

or desirable. His time can be more profitably spent in other ways. The principal, under modern conditions, is the educational leader and coordinator, but not the dictator, of his school. He seeks advice more often than he gives it. He is the executive officer of the school in carrying out an educational program which has been arrived at cooperatively by his staff. His time should be devoted largely to securing and coordinating the cooperative efforts of the staff, to facilitating the work of staff members through removing administrative obstacles, to studying the educational needs of the community, and to interpreting the school to the community.

Principal as Supervisor of Professional Growth[1]

The principal thus holds a key position in the supervisory field. He is the one who must see to it that "good administration precedes good supervision" and that "good supervisory practices should follow upon sound administration." His professional leadership capacities are tested every day. The success of the supervisory program depends largely upon the skill of the principal in identifying the problems in his own school, in enlisting the enthusiastic participation of the teachers, pupils, and patrons of his school in a cooperative attack upon those problems, and in

[1]Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1944), pp. 318-319.

coordinating such in-system and out-of-system resources as can be obtained.

Among the in-system resources will be the general and special supervisors, consultants, and research personnel employed by the local school system. One important thing for the principal to know is the talents of each of these resource persons and how to enlist their contributions in the most effective manner. Usually general supervisors bring to their work a broad background of professional training and experience which makes it possible for them to give expert assistance in the interpretation of courses of study and the objectives and materials of instruction. The fact that they have occasion to visit extensively in the schools of the city enables them to view classroom instruction, teacher difficulties, and pupil progress and achievement from a broader point of view than the principal may be able to do. The principal thus has occasion to discuss the problems in his own school with one who can view the work in a particular school in terms of the city as a whole. Frequently the supervisor may recognize and call to the attention of the principal certain problems which had escaped him. If the principal and the general supervisor can engage frequently in friendly, frank discussion of professional problems, the principal, or perhaps both of them, may learn much of value. Certainly the principal should utilize every opportunity to secure informa-

tion and assistance from the general supervisor regarding the problems in his own building.

Administrative Arrangements for Professional Growth[1]

The Detroit Citizenship Education Study, in which four elementary schools participate, is a five-year program financed by a special grant from the William Volker Charities Fund, and sponsored by the public schools and Wayne University. One of the very first major findings of the study was that many teachers feel rushed a great deal of the time. For this reason, the administration of the study has released teachers from classroom duties to attend faculty meetings, special conferences, addresses by speakers from outside the city, and other activities necessary to their professional growth and development. Substitute teachers are employed to make this possible. With these advantages there is encouraging evidence of increased morale among the staff of the elementary schools participating in the study. It is reported that during the first year of the study the awareness of teachers regarding educational problems has increased. Complacency is being replaced by a desire to modify procedures to meet needs previously unrecognized. At the beginning of the study, teachers

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[1]Education for All American Children, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators (Washington: The Commission, 1948), pp. 213-214.

expected that all staff committees would be appointed by the principal or by some administrative officer. Now they operate through an elected steering committee which takes responsibility for such activities. The staff of one school has participated in the development of a motion picture which shows the growth and development of children, devised a plan for modifying the platoon organization in teaching reading and social studies, and carried on planning with the parents and students for a student council and hobby club.

It is a tentative conclusion of the Citizenship Education Study that the in-service growth of teachers in this kind of plan is encouraged by such factors as:

1. A feeling of personal status, derived from participation in a project which has public and professional recognition.
2. Time for the teacher to reflect and confer with others.
3. Recognition by administrative officers of initiative displayed by individual teachers.
4. Reasonably detailed secretarial records of teachers' meetings, in order to show continuity and growth in planning.
5. Availability of school supplies, with use of supplementary funds available to the Citizenship Education Study.

The Overton, Texas, schools frequently employ substitutes for teachers who wish to attend professional conferences. For example, when a specialist from the University of Texas conducted conferences with individuals and groups of teachers

during the evaluation program, substitutes were employed so that regular teachers could be released to attend the conferences.

The Nichols School, Evanston, Illinois, believes that teachers need more time for planning with other teachers and with pupils and parents. Twice a week, from 2:30 to 3:15 in the afternoon, certain teachers are released for this work. Their pupils follow outside interests at this time. In addition, the school furnishes for teachers the following assistants: A full-time textbook secretary who takes requests for books, sees that they are delivered, and keeps all book records; a mimeographer who duplicates materials for teachers; a full-time stenographer; and a full-time bookkeeper.

Developing Leaders in the Faculty[1]

Education is a complex activity. Only by imposing upon an entire faculty the total responsibility of a school can the activity be carried on efficiently. The faculty, taking cognizance of the variety, quantity, and technical nature of this responsibility, is obligated to establish an internal organization that properly meets all aspects of the total responsibility. This internal organization must provide for continuity of thinking and effective problem-solving

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[1]G. R. Koopman, A. Miel, and P. J. Misner, Democracy in School Administration (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943), pp. 51-52.

through the use of standard research techniques, accurate record-keeping, and genuine group thinking. It must also provide for a greater specialization of personnel to ensure a faculty group possessing in the aggregate an almost infinite variety of competencies.

It is especially important that the classroom teacher become more and more of a specialist in problems pertaining to the growth and development of children and young people. Since the classroom teacher cannot hope to possess all the competencies needed to ensure the well-rounded development of all the members of his group, other specialists should be available to supplement his own abilities. This means that the classroom teacher must be broadly educated and skilled in making wise use of other personnel.

If it is considered important that the classroom teacher be a specialist, it is only reasonable that he be encouraged to develop qualities of leadership that will allow him to make the maximum use of his special abilities. Leadership should be the function of every teacher in a school. Each teacher should be regarded as having within himself a potentiality both for leadership and for service tending to express itself alternately and concurrently as the situation may indicate. The atmosphere of the democratic school should be such to encourage the teacher to exert leadership confidently and as needed. Only such leadership, expressed in

this way, is truly democratic and creative.

An administrative procedure that involves in policy-making those most concerned with classroom leadership cures many of the present maladjustments in education by a single stroke.

Development of leadership and specialization on the part of the classroom teacher does not mean that other specialists who have been offering leadership will no longer be needed. The need for leadership is so great that the present personnel in such groups as general supervisors, directors of instruction, and supervisors and teachers of "special" subjects will be much in demand regardless of the patterns of leadership service. The placing of the classroom teacher in the role of coordinator of the experiences of the children in his group does mean that more attention must be given to improving the relationships among all those who serve a group of children. Relationships between service agents and children must also be studied in each school system.

Principal's Evaluation for Teacher Growth[1]

So a committee began a study of this problem of teacher rating. A thorough study of many rating systems and much discussion of the subject ensued. Two conclusions finally were reached:--that it is desirable to have some method of evaluat-

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[1]C. H. Pygman, "Working Together for Teacher Growth," Educational Leadership, V (December, 1947), 185-187.

ing teachers' work in order to maintain a high standard for the teaching profession, and that the main objective of such an evaluation is to improve instruction through teacher growth. The committee further stated that teachers realize that in the teaching profession there must be some way to eliminate those who are misfits and those who do very poor work. It also reported that most teachers are willing and anxious to improve their work. How to devise and implement an evaluation plan that would meet these needs and improve human relations was then considered. The result was the new and challenging pattern herewith presented.

How the New Plan Works

Before the close of the first semester principals are to write (in triplicate) an evaluation letter to each teacher new to the system. This evaluation letter should be a frank evaluation of the teacher's work. It should contain acknowledgement of the teacher's strong points; recognition of extra-curricular work; praise for the things she has done for the boys and girls under her care, for the school, for the system as a whole; and constructive criticisms and suggestions.

These letters are to be signed by the principal and sent to the superintendent to be read and signed by him. The letters will then be mailed from his office. One copy will be returned to the principal and one filed in the

superintendent's office.

The principal should invite and urge his teachers to come in for a conference on their evaluation letter. The letter in itself is not enough. A face-to-face discussion of mutual problems contributes much to the high quality of human relations necessary to cooperative effort.

Since this letter is of major importance for teacher improvement, much time, though, and consideration should be given to a fair evaluation of the teacher's work, to the constructive criticisms and suggestions, and to the manner in which they are expressed.

Teachers are asked to keep in mind that their evaluation letters are confidential.

Since our state provides for tenure status after a two year period of probation, all new teachers will receive an evaluation letter each year for the first two years. After she is employed on a tenure basis she may or may not receive such a letter.

Whenever it is thought desirable the principal may give teachers who are on tenure an evaluation letter. Sometimes teachers ask for such an evaluation. At other times principals write a letter of commendation to teachers of many years of service expressing appreciation for their good work and splendid contributions to the profession. Sometimes, too, it is necessary to offer guidance and counsel to teachers on

tenure whose work does not measure up to accepted standards. In other words, after the two year probation period the letter is not required but may be used.

Everyone Shares in Growth

This plan has been functioning now for several years and the results are gratifying. Not only has it contributed to growth on the part of teachers, but it has led principals to realize the need of working more closely with teachers in studying teaching procedures and curriculum content. To write such evaluation letters as are prescribed in this plan the principal must know his personnel and their individual problems. The principals have become leaders in the instructional field and co-workers of the teachers who feel that they can find in their principal a source of guidance and help. The many conferences preceding and following the evaluation letter are added helps in enabling the teacher to see that her principal and the supervisors are interested in her problems and are willing to help in solving them.

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CHAPTER XXI

IN-SCHOOL RESEARCH

The basis of school change and improvement should be cooperative study by those involved. By this method the true nature of the problems will be recognized and change will be built upon a sound foundation. When in-school research is employed as a basis for improvement, the problem will be understood as real and solutions will be supported by a spirit of group responsibility. The following selections point up some desirable practices and principles.

The Importance of Research[1]

Many common problems of classroom teachers are only partially solved or have not been attacked experimentally. Differences of opinion based upon differences in experiences lead to disagreements regarding the teaching procedures to be followed in specific situations. The gaps in the research literature regarding many commonplace phases of teaching are large. These illustrative conditions indicate the need for extensive and careful classroom experimentation and other forms of research in the schools. Cooperative efforts of teachers, principals, and other workers are essential if many of the obstacles to sound learning are to be removed from the

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[1]George C. Kyte, The Principal at Work (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1941), pp. 342-343.

school program. Educational literature contains numerous examples of the excellent research work which teachers and principals are doing in their efforts to solve important problems.

The thorough application of research techniques to problems of the classroom improves instruction. In order that the research procedures may be selected wisely and applied correctly, principal and teachers must study them thoroughly. In fact, the work of the principal has become so involved in activities requiring scientific precision that he should obtain formal instruction in research techniques under a competent teacher of research. Then the principal may utilize them extensively in the school.

Practically all types of investigational procedures are applicable to the work of the school. There is need for historical studies, legal research, surveys, statistical studies, experiments, philosophical research, and case studies. Four techniques in particular--experimentation, statistical research, surveys, and case studies--are especially applicable to the common problems of teachers. Guides to the methods of research should be readily available for their use. Many helpful books of this nature have been published.

Planning a Research Program[1]

If research is to be effective in running a school system it must be organized and directed as a service feature of the system and must be available to all parts of the system and all aspects of the work at all stages of its progress. To bring research to bear in this manner it should be carefully planned to fit the needs for such a contribution. As is true of the curriculum, the social program, guidance, or supervision, it must be participated in by those who are to use its results in their work. For a teacher or a counselor to participate, thought must be given to the basis of such participation. First, does the teacher, for instance, sense a problem in his work wherein research may be a suitable approach? What is needed is that the teacher shall become a definite partner in the enterprise. Second, what talent has the teacher for a contribution and what time and facilities has he for assisting? Third, can the problem be solved in time to be useful and at a cost that would warrant the expenditure and possibly the omission of other researches that are needed? Assuming that research is to be available to all divisions of the service, from the care of buildings and the purchase and storing of supplies to curriculum-making,

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[1]Jesse B. Sears, Public School Administration (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), pp. 300-301.

supervision, and teaching, it is obvious that a budget would have to be made as a basis for limiting the service, and accordingly that the service itself would have to be planned.

In the best bureaus the research program is built into a plan projected ahead for the year somewhat after the fashion of the school budget.[1] In such cases the research problems are selected on the basis of a study of need throughout the system for answers to difficult problems. A second characteristic of the best bureaus is their tendency to stimulate individual or group study and experiment throughout the system and to draw into research projects those who later will be responsible for putting the results of research to work in practice. To put the bureau of research on this sort of basis is not simple. It is easy for a bureau to become a place where statistical drudgery is handled and where real scientific imagination has no place. A positive, aggressive, vigorous bureau has to be developed; it cannot be left to grow up like Topsy.

Function of a Survey in Formulation of a Policy[2]

The earlier surveys laid rather more stress upon evaluating the efficiency of school systems, as they were found,

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[1]Jesse B. Sears, "Administration of Public School Research Policies," Journal of Educational Research, XXVI (November, 1932), 186-198.

[2]Jesse B. Sears, The School Survey (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925), pp. 10-11.

than upon the problem of formulating policies and plans. The later tendency is to furnish not only a critical evaluation of the system as it is operating, but to present and interpret the facts necessary for the formulation of a school policy for the future.

It is comparatively easy to carry out a plan of action in education, once it has been formulated. The statement of aim, and the determination of a line of procedure require insight and a comprehensive understanding of the whole situation involved. If for no other reason, economy alone demands that the modern school system must be operated in terms of a definite policy, and this applies to the work of the teacher as well as to that of the superintendent.

A full statement of a school policy would include:

1. A statement of aims.
2. A plan of procedure for the attainment of those aims.
3. A statement of the principles that are to guide in the execution of the plan of procedure.

The superintendent must decide whether the schools would provide training for all the people, or for the children alone; whether that training shall be purely bookish and academic, or in part vocational in character; whether he will use a budget system of finance, or no system; and whether he will employ a relatively large or a relatively small staff. The supervisor must determine the general aims of instruction, and must follow some consistent plan in the training of his

teachers. The teacher must determine the specific aims of her instruction, and be guided by certain principles in the management of her pupils. Thus, every school officer, not only must aid in the execution of the general policies of the schools, but each must formulate his or her own lesser policies touching the details of the larger plans. In all this there must be a reason for every decision, and that reason must be based upon facts. To find these facts, and to interpret them, is the function of the school survey.

Research and Committee Work[1]

It is necessary, if one would keep intellectually alive and growing, to maintain an open mind toward new theories and methods, toward change and progress, and to be interested in making investigations and in the results of investigations. Although we do not advocate that the teacher turn his classroom into an experimental laboratory to investigate all manners and types of educational theories and "isms," we do wish to go on record as favoring some research on practical topics on the part of teachers. Not only will this research help to keep the teachers open-minded, but it may result in the discovery of a new method or technique, or the improvement of an old method of technique. The most charac-

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[1]Ward G. Reeder, The Fundamentals of Public School Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937), pp. 98-99.

teristic feature of education during the past two or three decades is its attempt to secure a scientific basis; surely such a basis is needed. In spite of the excellent beginning, it cannot be truly said that the science of education is more than in its infancy; it has hardly outgrown its swaddling clothes. Cooperation of all teachers is indispensable if the progress of the science of education is to be accelerated.

To date, practically all of the research in education has been done in the college and universities. This probably results from the fact that one of the historic functions of colleges and universities and of the professors therein has been the conducting of research, and from the additional fact that the professors have been especially trained for, and supplied with the equipment and assistance for, such work. We believe, however, that the opportunity of the elementary and secondary school teacher has not been realized in this respect. Who has a more ideal set-up for making educational investigations of a practical nature than the classroom teacher? His situation is entirely natural, for he has the pupils in their natural habitat; he has the opportunity to study them under school conditions that are normal--conditions which do not always exist in the experimental laboratories of the colleges and universities.

Cooperative Research Projects in Which Teachers Participate[1]

Teachers have opinions; the principal may accept or tolerate some; he may reject, or snub, or argue down others. If he wise, however, the principal will recognize the right of all teachers to their own opinions, if they are willing to test them out.

He thus can encourage a considerable amount of simple research among his teachers. The school records are a mine always waiting to be worked by committees of teachers of differing opinions. Classroom procedures offer endless opportunities for balanced experiments. The activities and interests of children, both in and out of school, furnish source material for challenging the contents and methods of specific subjects, and data concerning results of curriculum provisions.

Such problems as are involved in the scholarship of students who participate actively in student activities of one kind or another as compared with the scholarship of those who do not participate, or of those who work for support as compared with those who do not, are always easy to launch because there are such dramatic differences of opinion regarding these relationships in every faculty. The desirability of homogeneous grouping; the efficiency of pupils who have dif-

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[1]P. W. L. Cox, and R. E. Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision (New York: American Book Company, 1934), pp. 592-593.

ferent preparations for advanced courses--for example, the pupils who have had "direct" method French during their first year--as compared with those who have followed a reading and visual vocabulary and grammar method; the relations between command of mathmetics and success in physics or chemistry; the effect of size of class upon effectiveness of instruction; the relative effectiveness of laboratory practice and of teacher demonstrations in teaching sciences;--these and hundreds of other questions involve differing teacher opinions. The teacher-research may not prove one individual right and another wrong, but it may develop tolerance and inquiring minds.

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CHAPTER XXII

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Adequate preparation to do the best job possible seems to be a continual process. In following the pattern of learning by living many schools are offering training programs to the staff on the job. The situations, problems, and questions are real and timely. Suggestions can be thought out, tested, and evaluated immediately. Recommended programs can be supervised in the actual learning situations by qualified authorities. Various aspects of this program are presented below.

The Need for an In-Service Training Program[1]

"In-service training" is a term somewhat loosely and vaguely used in education, and its relationship to supervision is often not made clear. In-service training, from the point of view of this book, is not synonymous with supervision; it is a specific and delimited part of supervision. It is that part of the total supervisory program concerned with the growth of the members of the school staff in their ability to carry out specific, immediate duties and responsibilities. The total program is concerned with the total growth of the staff, not only in ability to handle specific immediate

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[1]James H. Fox, Charles E. Bish, and Ralph W. Ruffner, School Administration Principles and Procedures (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), pp. 167-168.

assignments, but also in general personal growth and the development of potentialities for possible future promotion.

The term "in-service training" assumes more meaning when it is applied to a specific group of workers in terms of a planned program. Thus, "the in-service program for teachers" is that part of the total supervisory program which is concerned with training teachers while they are on the job to do their immediate jobs more effectively. As such, it is concerned with specific teaching problems in the school. And from general supervisory techniques or procedures, those techniques or procedures are selected which are most applicable to the problem with which the in-service training program is concerned.

Although attention is focused on the in-service training program for teachers, such a program should also be provided for all members of the school staff. A school administrator may often discover that clerical and custodial personnel are not adequately trained. An in-service training program for school clerks or custodians should then be organized to correct these deficiencies. The general pattern of an in-service training program for teachers will indicate the pattern for members other than teachers.

The necessity for a supervisory program is indicated by the fact that all teachers need to grow continuously, both professionally and personally, if their teaching effectiveness

is to continue to increase. This need underlies in-service training as well, since it is a part of the total program. Three conditions, found singly or collectively in nearly all schools, point out the specific need for an in-service training program. They are:

1. The pre-service training of teachers may be inadequate in terms of their assignments.
2. The quality of teaching is increasingly influenced by the actual experiences which teachers have on the job.
3. Administrative policies may call for special training to enable teachers to carry out these policies as applied to their specific assignments.

The Principal and a Democratic In-Service Program[1]

The principal who would have his school contribute as effectively as possible to the continuing growth of pupils, of members of the school staff, and of the parents in the community will promote the study of needs, difficulties, and tensions, both current and impending. These problems will be attacked sometimes individually by the principal working alone, more often with teachers or perhaps with parents working with him as individuals or in groups. He seldom says, "Thou shalt"; he often says, "Come let us try." Out of problem situations come the plans, not the principal's plans but

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[1]Worth McClure, "Fundamentals of In-Service Improvement," In-Service Growth of School Personnel, Twenty-First Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, XXI, No. 6 (Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1942), 238-240.

"our plans"--part and parcel of the larger plans of the school-board for the system in which the school is located, plans to which other schools similarly contribute.

Making new plans.--An important task of leadership is that of seeing to it that new plans are developed and that they are revised from time to time in the light of continuing observations. Out of this ongoing experience new problems are defined, which are attacked cooperatively. There is nothing like cooperative effort to unify, to integrate, to educate, and above all to keep realistic the cooperators, of whom the principal is one. That is why the democratic way is best. It is the way of growth. It may be slower than leadership by decree but it is more enduring.

Following thru.--Important is the follow thru, as any golfer knows. Here, again, the principal is chiefly responsible. Results must be checked by means of classroom observations, individual and group consultation with teachers and other members of the corps, tests, examinations, and other devices of evaluation. In order to maintain a perspective that otherwise might be lost because of closeness to the job, the principal with the help of the teaching corps seeks often to view the school thru the eyes of laymen, the superintendent, and the board of education.

Avoiding busy-work.--Nothing that has been said here should be taken to condone the "busy-work" approach to teacher

participation. The problems studied must be real problems. They must be problems that can be solved at least in part as the result of cooperative planning and coordinated work. It is not at all necessary that every member of the staff be a member of a planning group all the time or that the principal hold round-table discussions over matters of routine. Helpful suggestions often are best secured by way of bulletin requests, as was recently done by one principal in regard to ways of economizing on writing paper when there was an impending shortage. Most deadening is the effect of asking a group of teachers to study a problem and then filing their carefully prepared recommendations to gather dust in the archives. Teachers quite properly resent mere "busy-work" and will not long follow a leadership that is devoid of common sense.

Starting with needs.--The fact that successful learning, not only of children but of adults as well, is directly proportional to the active cooperation of the learners has its implications for teachers meetings, bulletins, professional study, classroom observation, and other well-known devices in supervision. For example, teachers meetings are not ends in themselves; they are merely the means of defining problems, of exchanging ideas for their solution, and of planning cooperatively for the school as a whole. Professional reading and study often grow out of needs revealed in these democratic processes. Bulletins, in the situation here described, may

be used for recording plans, for summarizing the results of previous study, or for convenient reference. Too often teachers meetings are highly formalized, largely because that is the traditional study approach. That such meetings are generally distasteful to teachers is convincingly shown by the plethora of literature on "how to vitalize teachers meetings."

Utilizing the "here and now".--Consideration of the teachers' own current problems breaks down the traditional, formal approach even tho the study of such problems means, of course, the occasional use of some that may be regarded as trivial. The principal may begin by asking different members of the corps to talk about their work, with questioning if need be to draw out problems. Then the common problems thus derived will provide a convenient starting point for cooperative study.

Not long ago a principal confessed rather shamefacedly that there had been no "professional study" in his school for a year. The reason was that his entire staff had been too busy with the problem of study conduct in assemblies. A teacher committee had gone into the underlying causes of the disturbing situation and had recommended an entirely new approach to school assemblies. After thoro consideration and some modification of the plan, the corps had accepted it and put it into effect. But there had been no "professional study," because nothing had been done by way of formal reports

on some new professional book!

Important, of course, are professional reading, additional study for college credit, and all the excellent activities described elsewhere in this yearbook. But, if any principal holds meetings just for the sake of holding meetings, or assigns book reports for the sake of having book reports, he has let the means become ends in themselves. He has forgotten the vital principle that the processes of democracy are growth processes and that the problems of democracy are the tensions out of which growth processes are stimulated and kept active.

Observing what succeeds.--Visits to classrooms are for the purpose of observing children--not teachers. Plans have been set up and a program of living adopted with a view to promoting the continuing, optimum growth of pupils. The way these plans actually work out in the classroom and in the school generally is a matter which requires observation and study by the principal and teachers together. The principal comes into the classroom to help observe child growth, to gather suggestions that will be useful elsewhere, to assist the teacher to examine difficulties that may afflict children, to bring additional resources to bear on problems if necessary. When the principal observes in this spirit and consults to this point, classroom visits will cease to be "visitations."

Traditional supervision, with its microscope trained on fragmentary technics, could hardly fail to produce defensive reactions inhibitive of growth. Conversely, the "standing-by" attitude of the principal, his "let's study it together," his tacit disclaimer of infallible wisdom, render the situation impersonal and go far toward securing wholesome teacher cooperation. Certain it is that supervision in the old sense--its ex cathedra approach, its emphasis on weaknesses, its ritual of meetings, bulletins, visits, and tests--was too often the bogeyman in the schools of yesterday. In its place cooperative study, based upon strengths and successes, involving the principal, the teachers, the pupils and their parents, gives promise to the schools of tomorrow.

Importance of In-Service Training[1]

The members of no profession or vocation have a larger opportunity for self-education than the members of the teaching profession. Teachers are engaged in the business of education. Their whole environment is conducive, or at least should be conducive, to intellectual growth. Always they are dealing with minds, the most stimulating things in the world.

We are making a plea, therefore, for a life-long continuance of the professional growth of teachers. Such con-

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[1]Ward G. Reeder, The Fundamentals of Public School Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937), pp. 90-92.

tinuous training is of large importance for the following reasons:

In the first place, as was indicated in earlier paragraphs of this chapter, most teachers enter the profession with only a small amount of training for their work. Whereas teaching is one of the most difficult and important professions, and should in consequence be engaged in only by persons who are well trained, only about one-half of the teachers of the United States have what may be called the "minimum of respectability" in training, namely, two years of college preparation. A large percentage has much less than this minimum; in fact, thousands of teachers have no more than a high school education, and many do not have even that. Training in service is especially necessary for this group of inadequately trained teachers.

Training in service, however, is not urged for the inadequately prepared alone. It is of vital importance to those who have spent a much longer period of time in the teacher-training institutions. Complete training before the teacher enters service cannot be secured in a teacher-training institution. It cannot be secured because the novitiate lacks the experiential background. Before the novitiate can gain full competence and confidence he must try out his theories and techniques in an actual teaching situation; he must secure the feel of his work.

In the second place, training in service is necessary because teaching efficiency cannot remain static. Teaching, like most professions, is progressing rapidly. Educational theories are under constant criticism and revision. Experimentation and investigation are constantly bringing forward new methods and new techniques, and are making us more familiar with that most baffling thing in the world--the working of the human mind. With such discoveries the teacher must be familiar if he expects to keep abreast of the profession.

A teacher once trained is not always trained. In fact, a teacher who may have been graduated from a first-rate teacher-training institution only a few years ago could not be called a trained teacher today unless he has read the pedagogical literature appearing in the meantime and has taken other steps to keep informed on progress which has been made in the profession. Persons who have been out of the teaching profession during only a few years upon reentering it find that they are "back numbers;" to get up-to-date they must spend a large amount of time in ascertaining what has happened during their absence. We have seen well-trained missionary teachers go to out-of-way places in foreign countries, who, in two or three years upon their return to this country, have found that they were largely "back numbers," because they had not been able to secure and to read the pedagogical literature appearing during their absence.

Basic Purpose of an In-Service Workshop[1]

As indicated earlier, the purpose of our curriculum study and workshop was to produce a change in people. It was to interest teachers in children and their needs rather than chiefly in subject content. No attempt was made to produce written courses of study or units of work unless they were natural outgrowths of the study underway. The recorders of each group kept an account of the decisions reached. Some have developed into complete outlines representing new content and approach to objectives desired.

The complete history of our workshop, then, was a composite of the efforts of all participants insofar as it could be recorded. Much of this is being reproduced for all our teachers and will serve as suggestive source material. More important is the change that has come about in the attitude, interest, and enthusiasm of teachers and students as reflected in the work both are doing and the reaction of parents who have children in the experimental classes.

Recognizing from the outset the imperative need for parent understanding, representative lay persons have been brought into committees determining policies and content. When teachers become interested first in children and then

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[1]Lester J. Grant, "Workshops Contribute to Curriculum Development," Educational Leadership, VII (January, 1950), 246-247.

in content, parents are necessarily drawn more intimately into the picture. This, too, is already reflected in the greater use of our school guidance services by classroom teachers.

Although we do not yet have any objective test data to prove that we are doing a better job now than before, and we have not produced volumes of teaching units, it is obvious that the staff study, interest, and sincerity of purpose will result in more understanding teachers and more effective teaching. Two teachers in one of our junior high schools have already shown the effectiveness of these improved techniques by practically eliminating all school discipline problems in a group of slow-learning children. For the first time these children are important, their successes are recognized, and they have a place in the sun.

We have seen a marked change in people, which we believe is the only true curriculum revision. It was brought about through the cooperation of our state teachers colleges and university with our local staff and community in an effective in-service program.

Support of the In-Service Training Program[1]

The in-service education of teachers had traditionally been thought of as an individual affair. Particular teachers,

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[1]K. W. Bigelow, "In-Service Teacher Education--Implications for Administration and Support," Childhood Education, XXII (January, 1946), 230-231.

lacking a bachelor's or master's degree, were encouraged to "bring themselves up to standard" via the summer session or some other route. Of, if the degree of "preparation" could not be questioned, periodical demonstration of "alertness" was asked for. Response might be required, or it might at least be stimulated by the linking of promotion and salary-increase possibilities to evidence of continued study. In any case the appeal was individualistic. Under such circumstances it seemed evidently appropriate that the costs of continued education should be borne by each particular teacher involved.

But such programs of in-service education as have been dealt with here are institutional in character; they attract individual teachers not as such but as members of a school system team; they call for participation by those with the best prior education as well as by those with the least. Moreover their appeal bears no relation to the degree in which various teachers feel able to make a financial investment in them. And finally any effort to obtain such investment by promise of consequent salary benefits would be inconsistent with the basic aim ~~of general~~ participation.

It follows that the cost of such programs must be considered as fundamentally constituting a proper and necessary charge against school system budgets. Any why should they not be? The cost of supervision has long been accepted,

and good supervision is certainly a species of in-service education. Indeed good supervision is increasingly seen as providing leadership in voluntary group study. In any case the improvement of school programs in a period when teachers are averaging extended years of service, when social changes are steadily challenging education, and when significant new knowledge relating to the teaching task is rapidly emerging, clearly requires increased budgetary provisions for the support of such activities as have herein been considered.

For what purposes may such funds desirably be employed? First to supply adequate leadership and other resources for study groups. This may imply an increase in central-office services but is at least as likely to suggest providing relief for classroom teachers in order that they may for a time carry special responsibilities. While it is by no means thought that study groups should invariably meet only on "school time" this may sometimes be desirable and call for special arrangements. Suitable books, films, and other study materials should certainly be made available, as well as adequate clerical facilities. Provision for obtaining sufficient help from first-rate outside consultants is essential.

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CHAPTER XXIII

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Today there are few administrators who expect passive cooperation from the public they service. Instead, active cooperation of the complete community is being sought. When the program of learning is on a sound basis, public interest in the school is encouraged and this interest is utilized for further improvement. Business and public agencies alike are recognizing the importance of amiable public relations.

Basic Principles of a School Publicity Program[1]

There must be something worth interpreting. The first step in sound public relations is to organize and to direct a good school system. All the publicity that may be devised by the cleverness of a genius can not convince the public indefinitely that an inefficient school system is a community asset.

The educational program should be clearly stated. The public will tend to have confidence in a school system which seems to know where it is going. Uncertainty and doubt as to how tax money is being spent leads often to revolt. In cooperation with the board of education the superintendent

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[1] School in Small Communities, Seventeenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association. (Washington: The Association, 1939), p. 287.

should outline a long-time educational program for the district.

Educational interpretation is a two-way process. The superintendent and the teachers should assume that the public is as interested in the schools as they are. Laymen like to have the opportunity to advise and to suggest on educational matters. Opportunities must be provided for lay participation and discussion. Interpretation, like learning, is a 'give-and-take' activity.

Coordination must be systematically provided. There needs to be unity of purpose among those who speak and act for the schools. Without general understanding of the interpretation objectives, speeches, newspaper articles, or even classroom activities may appear to contradict the public relations program.

Continuous verification and testing of procedures are essential. No program of interpretation can be so carefully planned as not to require continuous observation and adjustment. Attention should be given to the trends of public opinion, the timeliness of appeals, the suitability of various media, and the apparent effects upon the various 'audiences' in the community.

Purposes of a Public Relations Program[1]

Every business organization and every industry which

[1]J. E. Pease, "Good Public Relations Win Support," Education, LXVI (June, 1946), 611.

has something to sell uses every possible and effective method of advertising to all the attention of the buying public to its product. They have something to sell, and their very existence depends on whether or not they sell their products. About the time of the last World War, school people were continuing with the problem of "selling" the schools because significant and far-reaching changes were being made in the curriculum to meet new conditions. More financial support was needed to carry on the added services, and so it was necessary to work for greater financial aid by "selling" the idea to the public.

Today, more emphasis is being placed upon interpreting the schools rather than upon the "selling" of them, for as pointed out, schools need the support of groups who understand their problems and needs. Following are some of the purposes or reasons for a Public Relations Program:

To interpret the curriculum, new methods of instruction and procedures.

To interpret and explain the extra-curriculum, including athletics, forensics, music activities, school clubs, etc.

To explain the financial support and needs of the schools.

To present long-range building programs and bonding campaigns.

To explain recreational projects.

To explain and discuss ways and means of cooperating with business and industry in vocational placements.

To promote programs of health and safety education.

To encourage the support of adult education programs.

To stimulate community group discussions on post-war and international problems.

To cooperate with the churches in planning for the spiritual experiences of children.

To explain the training and service of the teachers.

To promote the guidance service and explain the testing program.

To present the work of the Board of Education.

School people must have utmost confidence in the things which they are doing and in the services which they are offering. They must be "sold" on the thing they want to "sell" or interpret, be it in the field of the curriculum, a campaign for a new building, a program of adult education or any one of a dozen things which might be mentioned.

Seven Concepts of School Public Relations[1]

Among functions of the school administrator, those having to do with the administration of practices designed

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[1]Harlan L. Hagman, "Seven Concepts of School Public Relations," Nation's Schools, XL (November, 1947), 23-25.

for the betterment of school public relations are least well defined. The lack of clear organization and definite purposes in this field is difficult to account for, since school administrators generally accept as a major task the maintenance of satisfactory relations with the community.

It may be suspected that in spite of some play on words (educational interpretation, for example) school public relations has some unfortunate connotations. It may be that whether the administrator speaks of educational interpretation, social interpretation or public relations, he feels he is speaking of administrative functions that are not quite respectable. And, surely, if advertising, selling the schools, personal advancement or other similar ends are the objects of the school public relations program, the embarrassment of the administrator may be his properly.

However, if it is demanded that the purposes behind school public relations activities be high educational purposes, and that the activities themselves be necessary ones in the educational program of the schools, the administrator may regard his administration of school public relations as a worthy activity.

A listing of concepts may be of service in defining the area of this administrative function and may indicate what may be expected in present day practice. The appellations, applied sometimes satirically, afford in themselves

suggestions of the natures of the concepts described.

The "Little Nell" Concept.--Prominent in any discussion of school public relations administration is the concept of it as a form of supplication. Whatever the stress, the campaign slogan is "Save Our Schools." The attitude is a prayerful one. The tone is that of an appeal. Emotion is high. The heart throb touches the voice as the cry goes out to save the schools, shivering in their rags, from the cold winds of adversity and the hardheartedness of the taxpayers.

Since Little Nell, by the nature of things, is often in need of rescue, supplication in her interest is not to be disapproved. But a program of school public relations consisting only of wild rides to the rescue would seem to develop a falling interest on the part of the public in spite of high emotion on the part of the supplicant. It has the added disadvantage of fixing attention upon weaknesses rather than upon strengths and upon discouragements rather than upon hopes. It does not appear that a lasting state of good public relations can be built thus.

The Ounce-of-Prevention Concept.--The cautious whisper their worry about the pound of cure while administering their little vaccinations. The pricking and patching and dosing go on under the name of school public relations. The expectation is that bad times for schools will recur but that ill effects will be alleviated by whatever steps the schools can

take in anticipation of hardship. The activities in school public relations compose what is called sometimes "interpreting the schools." It is felt that if the school patrons understand what the schools are trying to do and are doing, continued support may be expected in all weathers. Since public understanding and acceptance are assurances of support, in some degree at least, interpretation of the educational program is highly desirable.

The weakness in building an entire program of school public relations on this concept is that the approach is essentially negative. It would appear that important progress or a dynamic program would not be brought about by an administration chiefly concerned with anticipation of storms ahead. Interpreting the schools to the public has a part in a program of school public relations conceived as educational leadership. The approach would be a positive one with all the strength of the positive.

The Fire Wagon Concept.--A third understanding of the nature of school public relations administration would seem to make it the apparatus held in readiness for an alarm. When the fire breaks out, fire wagons roll with clanging bells and screaming sirens. When the danger is over, the equipment is put away for the next alarm and life at the firehouse is placid again. The superintendent of schools can file away his campaign posters, his handbills and his newspaper clippings.

The board members can resume their regular assemblies in the quiet of the board meeting room. The teachers can move over beaten paths with no anxious glances toward the horizon. The shiny, red fire wagon stands ready in the firehouse.

It is desirable to have the equipment and the technics to meet emergencies. It is doubtful that school-community relations are fostered desirably by campaigns in times of crisis. If the program of school public relations is built only on the fire wagon concept, it is likely that sooner or later the speeding fire wagon will be too late for the fire.

The Show Window Concept.--Another concept may be called the show window or putting-the-best-foot-forward concept. Exhibits, concerts, plays, newspaper notices and speakers' bureau provide views of the school program. The school's show-worthy productions are selected for exhibit, causing a not uncommon confusion on the part of the unintiated as to what the educational program as a whole consists of.

Activities which are less spectacular and more difficult to dramatize, although sometimes equally worthy or more worthy in educational benefit, are not in the show window, desirable though it may be to afford the community a complete understanding of the school. Plays, concerts, and other exhibits have their place in the school's program of public relations. But the show window concept in itself is insufficient as a concept of a long term, educationally progressive

program of school public relations.

The Golden Stairs Concept.--It seems that if some schoolmen were to answer a question in all frankness, they would affirm their belief in school public relations administration as a means of climbing the professional ladder in their own careers. The school public relations program can become a beating of drums for individuals, especially administrators.

It is likely, of course, that any program of public relations will have as a concomitant the unintentioned spotlighting of persons in the school system. Among those persons, the superintendent of schools and other administrators would be prominent by virtue of their various position.

It is likely that in honest embarrassment at the thought of such unintentioned advertisement many administrators refrain from doing that which should be done to interpret the school's work to the community. In this way, the concept of school public relations administration as a method of enhancing prestige and place affects the actions of both those who seek self-advancement by such means and those who recoil at the thought.

The golden stairs concept can be rejected as unworthy. The creating of a school public relations program with high objectives drawn from within the purposes of the educational program, and with personal references in the execution mini-

mized as far as possible, will reduce the personal enhancement factor. Democratic administration with formulation of policy and plan, creation of program and administration of school public relations practices on as broad a base as possible will remove the superintendent from the appearance of self-advertisement.

The Hands-Across-the-Table Concept.--During the last ten years, the idea has grown that interpretation in school public relations is a two way process. Not only should the school be interpreted to the community but the community to the school. The community's needs and desires become important to the school and the measures taken to ascertain community opinion become part of the school public relations program. Some realization is had that the school does not provide all of the education of the child and that the community outside the school affects the school's endeavors.

To accomplish its objectives, the school, it is felt, must know the community, work with it, anticipate its wants and offer support to other community agencies having some educational objectives. A kind of marching together school-community cooperation is implied. The school is to be sensitive to the community to a greater degree while retaining independence in action.

However, in spite of having community interpretation as well as school interpretation, a school public relations

program according to this concept would be still partial and unsatisfying in the light of present day educational objectives. A sensitivity to community need and desire is good for a public school system, yet a dynamic educational program must meet more than contemporary or local need and desire, and the administrator cannot be a weather vane meeting all the winds that blow. Something more than an interpretation of the community to the school and an interpretation of the school to the community is needed, as the seventh concept of school public relations should reveal.

The Social Leadership Concept.--To those who believe that life in our time requires social leadership of a high type to be had in a democracy only through education, none of the foregoing concepts is satisfactory. The role of public education is seen as research, study, resource service and leadership for the betterment of living. The educational program is seen as dynamic and purposeful, with its problems the urgent ones of community, national and world living. The needs of the individual are seen in the needs of a democratic society and the objectives of education are looked for in both the individual and his society.

It is held that the solution of the urgent problems of our day cannot wait upon the coming-of-age of the child population but that solution must be arrived at by an adult population working through the agencies of democratic society.

Enlightenment in social living and democracy must go on together, for the democratic nation depends upon the education of its people continuously in the democratic way of life. The school as the chief educational agency of society should be expected to provide leadership and resources whenever pressing social problems turn for their solutions upon the education or re-education of large groups.

The increasing complexity and greater scope of social problems in this period of our times call upon public education to undertake more than the training of future citizens and the passing on of the cultural heritage. Should the great structure of public education not meet the large problems thrust upon it, it is likely that other structures and other organizations will be created to meet the educational necessity.

It would appear that there must be a dynamic educational leadership on the part of the school administrator and others, not only within the traditional province of the school but also throughout a community which is conceived to be as broad as the farthest reaches of the influence of a socially concerned, dynamic educational program. In trying to solve its problems, the community should find in its schools resources of information and assistance. The libraries, laboratories, shops, assembly halls, school personnel become resources in problem solving.

However, the community should find more than resource services in its educational system, important though such service is. In keeping with the root meaning of education, it should be expected that the community would find in its school the means for democratic leadership. No other social agency has so great a compulsion as has the school to offer leadership in community improvement, a leadership which must be democratic if it is to accomplish the great good in living in a democracy. The administration of school public relations in an educational program of dynamic social leadership is concerned with the practical problems of interrelationships of educational and other aspects of the community in a situation where the school is as large as its community is expansive.

Adult education, as well as public forums, the extended use of the schools with their grounds and equipment, community councils, community and school surveys, common educational undertakings by school and nonschool personnel, all are concerns of school public relations. Administration becomes, then, the means through which the school must work.

It is not too much to suggest that the social leadership concept of school public relations is the only concept worthy of an educational administration dedicated to the hard task of serving a democracy whose problems are complex, urgent and dependent for their solution upon public education.

Elements of a Policy of Home-School-Community Relations[1]

In setting up a policy then, twelve elements are offered which should form the basis of the policy. As the desired local pattern is developed, the principles outlined above should have some measure of application. These elements are as follows:

Recognition of Authority.--Wherever it is vested, educational authority must be recognized. Reference is here made to the State, the school board, the administrative officer, the teacher, or others in whom authority may be reposed or delegated. As and when the policy or policies are developed and set forth, they should be officially adopted by the vested or delegated authority.

Educational Objectives.--The meaning of education and nature of the educational process are basic to policy making. Educational objectives may be both general and specific in so far as the local school and community situations are concerned. Likewise, they may be immediate or remote as to realization. The educational philosophy of the school system and community attitudes toward education will be contributing or disturbing factors in setting up educational objectives.

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[1]William A. Yeager, Home-School-Community Relations (Pittsburgh: University Book Store, 1939), pp. 441-443.

Recognition of School and Community Needs, Conditions, Attitudes, Agencies, Activities and Institutions.--These should be ascertained by means of problems or a survey which may be at first partial in character, later more complete. Areas of service both within the school system as well as within the community should be selected for initial activity, within the limitations of the facts ascertained through the survey and facilities available. These may be later extended or modified.

Selecting the Policy Level.--Initially, that which may be more immediately attainable, as the solution of certain pressing problems, will be a determining factor as to level selected. Later, desirable changes should be made in accordance with results achieved and needs in the offing.

Fitting the Policy to the Program.--The nature of the policy will naturally determine the nature of the program which will be developed together with its administration; both must be carefully adapted. . . . .There should be both immediate and remote ends to be anticipated and achieved.

Location of Responsibility.--In locating responsibility, both leadership and followership should be considered. Leadership should be vested in the individual or group best fitted to secure the success of the enterprise under the control of the executive committee or other professional interests in whom executive committee or other professional interests in whom the authority descends. Time for leadership

is necessary. Followership involves consideration of those individuals or groups in whom some responsibility may be vested, selected for their interest and competency or the expediencies of the moment.

Recognition of the Place and Function of Partakers.--There is some overlapping of this principle with the previous principle as to the location of responsibility. Here we are considering, however, the fact that the selection of adequate partakers is highly essential in order that the policy and program materialize as planned. It is important to remember in this connection that some level of cooperation is always necessary wherever individuals or groups participate in any enterprise. To approach constantly higher levels is desirable.

Form of Community Participation.--Concern should be given to the form and manner in which the community institutions and groups participate in any way in the program to be developed. The level of approach to community participation will determine largely its extent, especially as the larger aspects of the educational processes are realized. The results of the survey should reveal needs and possibilities of participation, especially some study of community leadership with a view to utilization.

Form and Manner of Securing Understandings.--To secure proper understandings is always an essential part of any policy at any level, whether the aim be to inform, interpret, or create a cooperative situation. That which needs to be understood and the form and manner of securing understandings should be studied. Consideration will need to be given to the use of existing media of understanding or the creation of newer and more adequate ways. Complete understanding probably never takes place, so that the process should be continuous, or at least rhythmical.

Financial Considerations.--It is to be expected that a program of home-school-community relations adequately administered will require some financial outlay. It is recommended that some provision be made for such outlay as will promise reasonable success. Such expenses should be borne by the board of education as the taxing body, supplemented by such means as are available from the funds of participating organizations. The latter plan is suggested because those participating financially will ordinarily have a more abiding interest thereby.

Meeting Emergencies.--Provision should be made for emergencies which are likely to arise. Examples of emergencies which might be anticipated are unexpected needs of the schools, elections which change the political complexion of the board of education, effects of economic conditions,

reactions which occasionally set in through various forms of opposition, unforeseen expenses, and opposing personalities. Of course, it is not always possible to prognosticate such conditions. However, the principle of holding some reserve for any emergency might well be given some consideration.

Evaluating and Revamping the Policy.--Throughout this discussion we have emphasized the advisability of proceeding towards higher levels of policy making. To this end the policy should be under constant scrutiny. Criticisms of its successes and failures should be welcomed, and desirable changes made from time to time. This may involve some changes in personnel, which may be painful at times. The greater welfare of childhood would appear to be a superior challenge than the investiture of a single individual or group.

Administration for Parental Understanding and Cooperation[1]

The Rochester, New York, public schools begin early to establish understanding between the school and the parents. They publish a booklet of eight pages which is given to parents of boys and girls who will soon enter the kindergarten. This booklet, entitled School Days, includes a letter to parents beginning, "Your child is coming to school today for the first time. With this step he enters a bigger and broader world.

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[1]Education for All American Children, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. (Washington: The Commission, 1948), pp. 221-223.

The school now becomes a partner with you in the education of your child." The booklet then describes the types of habits which are desirable for the child to have when he enters school. Another page asks parents what they desire from the school. Two pages of information follow. Here the parent finds information concerning the method, time, and place for registration and an explanation concerning who is eligible to attend kindergarten. The last page, headed, "Your Child's Health," deals with such problems as immunization, nutrition, rest, and clothing. Photographs are included. For example, one picture shows a group of first-graders singing. Opposite this page is the sentence, "You and your friends will learn many new songs." Every parent of children in the Lakeview School, Rochester, New York, is a member of the PTA "until proved otherwise," according to a letter from the principal to the parent. There is no membership fee.

A booklet, entitled Looking Forward to School, is sent to parents who will have children entering the public schools of Newton, Massachusetts. The bulletin emphasizes health and is distributed through the cooperation of the local Christmas Seal Committee. Organized effort in the form of parent-teacher associations also helps parents to understand and aid children in their school experiences. In the John Ward School the parent-teacher association sponsors a meeting of the parents of children in the sixth grade. At this time

the junior high-school counseling program is described by the head of the junior high counseling department.

Whenever an outside consultant comes to the Guyton School in Detroit, Michigan, in connection with the Citizenship Education Study, the principal invites the parents to meet and hear this person. In this way, parents are made more directly interested in the Citizenship Education Study and more able to cooperate intelligently with the teachers in improving the school. More personal is the effort of many schools to help parents to understand the school, in its relation to their own children, through the use of progress reports. It would be well if more reports could elicit the response which one parent at the College Elementary School at Ellensburg, Washington, recently gave, "I can hardly wait until I see these reports. They are a kind of diary of my boy's progress."

The public schools of Montclair, New Jersey, have begun a new plan to get teachers, parents, and pupils to work together. "My Growth Plan," as the program is called, is designed so that a report form made out by the child in cooperation with parents and teachers sets forth the areas in which he himself plans to work the hardest. Parents and teachers made comments and suggestions which they think will help the pupil in his work. Also included in the plan is a regular piece of note paper on which is printed the

name of the school and which "is to go to the home, not at any stated time, but whenever appropriate for the individual pupil. In an informal way, in phrases that will carry meaning for the particular pupil, the teacher will communicate to the parents her point of view concerning the child's progress in school." In addition, a report of progress is sent home three times during the year in Grades III, IV, V, and VI. It is considered as a supplement to the other kinds of reports and is really an evaluation of the growth which took place in the fields where there was an attempt to make growth.

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